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ABSTRACT

This two-volume monograph on bilingualism, a "major, virtually untapped national resource," is based on three extensive field trips to current bilingual programs: (1) in the Northwest as far north as Barrow, Alaska; (2) the Southwest and Hawaii; and (3) from Dade County, Florida, north through Washington, New York, New England, and into Canada. In addition, almost all the bilingual programs in Texas were visited. This study presents a history of bilingual schooling, both in the United States and in other parts of the world; alternative concepts of bilingual schooling; sample curriculum models; implications for education and society; and an outline of needs, as related to action and research. Volume I includes an 870-page annotated bilbiography with index, and an index of terms. Volume II contains appended data on the Bilingual Education Act; draft guidelines to the Bilingual Education Program; demographic data; notes on immigration legislation; a typology of bilingual education; socio-historical notes on bilingualism in the United States; descriptions of non-English speaking ethnic groups in the United States; a directory of persons, organizations, and sources of teaching materials; names and addresses of USOE Bilingual Design Project Advisory Committee members; and a list of invited guests at the Conference on Bilingual Schooling in Northlake, Ill. (AMM)

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Bilingual Schooling in the United States

Volume One

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Volume One

by Theodore Andersson
and Mildred Boyer
Southwest Educational
Development Laboratory
Austin, Texas
January, 1970

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FOREWORD

A major, virtually untapped national resource, bilingualism, is the subject of this monograph, *Bilingual Schooling in the United States*. This study is designed to reveal the promise of bilingual education and to serve as a guideline for those planning bilingual programs. The project was undertaken by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory as a special task for the U. S. Office of Education under an amendment to its 1968 Title IV contract.

As specified in the contract Scope of Work, the monograph includes a history of bilingual schooling, both in the United States and in other parts of the world; alternative concepts of bilingual schooling; sample curriculum models; implications for education and society; and an outline of needs, as related to action and research.

Theodore Andersson and Mildred Boyer, authors of the monograph, made three extensive field trips to visit sites where bilingual programs are in progress. The first led through the Northwest as far north as Barrow, Alaska; the second was a tour of the Southwest and Hawaii; the third trip was from Dade County, Florida, north through Washington, New York, New England, and into Canada. In addition, almost all the bilingual programs in Texas were visited to obtain background material and knowledge of ongoing programs. Staff members of the Laboratory, Dr. Andersson and Dr. Boyer are on leave from the University of Texas at Austin. Dr. Andersson is the former Chairman of the Department of Romance Languages. Both he and Dr. Boyer are Professors of Spanish and Education.

The Laboratory accepted responsibility for conducting the study resulting in this report in accordance with policies of the Laboratory's Board of Directors governing acceptance of outside contracts and grants. These policies include criteria for judging relevance to the Laboratory's problem focus, program emphasis, and the degree to which the activity would extend and significantly enhance the accomplishment of the Laboratory's development objectives under its primary source of funding, Title IV, ESEA.

Bilingual Education is one of the basic learning systems now under development by the Laboratory. Instructional materials in both English and Spanish – including Oral Language (Science), Oral Language (Social Studies), Reading and Composition – have been designed and are being pilot tested with Mexican American children in Texas. The English portions of the materials are also being pilot tested with Puerto Rican children in New York City and with French-speaking children in Louisiana.

The ultimate product of the Laboratory's Bilingual Education Learning System is people – persons who are equally literate in two languages, who understand their own culture and other cultures, and who have career and life-style options open to them.

Edwin Hindsman
Executive Director

PREFACE

The many voices of America, the many languages, compose a symphony of beauty and strength in which all Americans may take pride. Mutual understanding of different languages and cultures is important in a nation which respects diversity and individuality while it works toward unity.

The Bilingual Education Act, introduced in the United States Senate in January, 1967, became Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act Amendments of 1967. It is intended to conserve our language resources and to advance the learning of the child, irrespective of language. It seeks to make *learning* the objective of the classroom, using other languages in addition to English to accomplish this objective.

The three million American school children from non-English speaking homes are entitled to full participation in our society, and bilingual education opens the door to that participation.

This study was conducted by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory with support from the U.S. Office of Education to give guidance and direction to those interested in developing programs that may be eligible for support through the Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

This Act, passed by the Congress on January 2, 1968, had the bipartisan sponsorship in the U.S. Senate of the following:

Ralph Yarborough, Dem., Texas, sponsor; and Jacob Javits, Rep., New York; Robert Kennedy, Dem., New York; Thomas A. Kuchel, Rep., California; Joseph M. Montoya, Dem., New Mexico; John Tower, Rep., Texas; Harrison A. Williams, Jr., Dem., New Jersey; and George Murphy, Rep., California, co-sponsors.

Bilingual education legislation (H. R. 9840) was introduced in the U.S. House of Representatives by James Scheuer, New York, on May 10, 1967. This proposal became H.R. 13103 on September 25, 1967, and a modification of it was passed as an amendment to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and provided assistance in bilingual education.

Members of the H. R. 13103 Committee included:

Congressmen Carl D. Perkins, Dem., Kentucky; John Brademas, Dem., Indiana; Hugh L. Carey, Dem., New York; Lloyd Meeds, Dem., Washington; Gus Hawkins, Dem., California; Sam Gibbons, Dem., Florida; William D. Hathaway, Dem., Maine; and Congresswoman Mrs. Patsy T. Mink, Dem., Hawaii.

Also, Congressmen Alphonzo Bell, Rep., California; Frank Thompson, Dem., New Jersey; John H. Dent, Dem., Pennsylvania; Dominick V. Daniels, Dem., New Jersey; Phillip Burton, Dem., California; Jacob H. Gilbert, Dem., New York; Edward R. Roybal, Dem., California; Claude Pepper, Dem., Florida; Hastings Keith, Rep., Massachusetts.

Also, Bob Eckhardt, Dem., Texas; Spark M. Matsunaga, Dem., Hawaii; Morris K. Udall, Dem., Arizona; Chet Holifield, Dem., California; Michael A. Feighan, Dem., Ohio; and Roman C. Pucinski, Dem., Illinois.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is not merely in the usual sense of formal acknowledgments that we wish to stress either the contributions of a great many other people to this book or our own final responsibility for its shortcomings. So extensive are the contributions in a number of cases that they are in effect collaboration, and the reader will see, as authors either of separate appendices or of substantial passages in the text, the names of Einar Haugen, William F. Mackey, A. Bruce Gaarder, Sarah C. Gudschinsky, Heinz Kloss, Ernest F. Haden, Kai-yu Hsu, Mieko S. Han, and William A. Douglass; as well as those of our own stalwart staff, Carol Phillips, Joan Frost, Maurice Mizrahi, and Dorothy Kerr.

All these names might quite properly figure on the title page as co-authors if they had been given the opportunity of seeing and revising the final form the manuscript has taken. There too it would be equally just to name Wallace E. Lambert, Joshua A. Fishman, and Rudolph Troike, whose influence on us has been at least as great, though what we derived from them was more on the order of ubiquitous infusions of spirit and viewpoint than specific verbatim quotations.

Yet if the assistance we received has been extensive beyond our ability to convey, we must not imply over-all responsibility on the part of any but ourselves. Again this is more than usually true, because of the way in which the text has evolved during these past ten months. In October of 1968 a conference of distinguished advisers met with us for two days in Chicago. Their names appear on page 327. Our early conception of our task was tested there and in a variety of ways found wanting. From the greater insight gained as a result of that conference and from the travel, correspondence, consultation, and reading which occupied us during the intervening months, we prepared a full draft by April 1, 1969. Few of the original Chicago conferees were pressed into service again at this stage, but the April draft in turn underwent careful scrutiny. The ten readers who served as our official consultants in April are listed on page 325. In addition, some twenty others voluntarily read and criticized our work. Among these we are particularly indebted to Howard Lee Nostrand, Jacob Ornstein, Chester C. Christian, Jr., Severo Gómez, Horacio Ulibarrí, Thomas Carter, William Madsen, Robert Randall, and Susan Ervin-Tripp. The wealth, both in amount and in variety, of assistance that we received for bettering the draft literally overwhelmed us. Having unwisely scheduled only two weeks for revision on the basis of expected criticism, we found that what was needed was not minor correction: it was a complete reorganization of the book, which involved totally rewriting every chapter of our draft but one, "Planning a Bilingual Program." Now, six weeks later, we are just completing in haste the task of revision. The haste shows not only in imperfections of style such as disparities of tone and an unevenness in treating the multiple facets of our subject, but also in the excessive length of the total monograph. As Pascal said, we regret that there was not time to make it shorter. We regret also that we have not been able to submit this final draft again to those who so magnanimously worked for the improvement of the April version. Such a resubmission to these outstanding figures here and abroad would no doubt have made the present book far more acceptable, and we can only hope that we have not completely missed the mark in our effort to incorporate their contributions.

In acknowledging our indebtedness, we cannot fail to make particular mention of Dr. Vera P. John, who gave us not only her questionnaire for collecting data on known bilingual programs but also numerous completed forms and indications of further leads. Her forthcoming book describing in detail many of the Spanish and American Indian programs we have so briefly sketched will be a major contribution to the study of bilingual schooling in the United States.

In this connection we also wish to thank the many persons – some of them already old friends, but many others to whom we were simply importunate strangers – who have taken time they did not have to answer our letters, complete questionnaires, and gather data to which we had no other access; and to receive us personally with most memorable courtesy and kindness, from Alaska to Texas, from Hawaii to Florida and Maine, in Mexico and Canada, and at countless schools, universities, state and federal offices, private homes, and airports in between. It has been an extraordinary year and we do not forget what has been done to help us in this impossible undertaking, even though the list of our benefactors is too long to be recited here.

A special word of thanks is due to Muriel Saville, to whom we owe much of our initiation into the vast and varied world of the American Indian, particularly the Navajo. On our journey through New Mexico and Arizona she was our companion, fellow observer, and mentor. We profited greatly from this association.

To Evangelos Angelos Afendras, of the International Center for Research on Bilingualism, we wish to express our gratitude for his gracious preparation of an index classification system designed to make our index compatible with the international bibliography on bilingualism now being compiled at the Center in Quebec. The completion of this larger bibliography, and of the indexing being done by Dr. Afendras to make information retrieval from it possible even for those not trained in the specialized fields it crosses, are eagerly being awaited by students throughout the world.

Nor have local helpers been lacking. Among them we want to give our thanks especially to Martha Cotera, librarian of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, who found not only what we requested but often also material we would not have known to ask for; to Rachel Ortiz and her staff in the Laboratory's secretarial support center, who have patiently produced, refined, and replaced successive drafts of our work; to the art and printing staff; to Earl Martin, who volunteered a considerable amount of his time as research assistant and who organized the section of photographs; to Nina Cooper, our colleague at The University of Texas, who read and shortened some of the more verbose portions of the text; and certainly not least, to Anita Brewer and her staff, for their editorial work on the book as a whole: they have been a comfort and a stay to us in time of tribulation.

Finally, we are deeply grateful for the opportunity to have worked on this subject, which we consider to be replete with significance for our state and our nation. We therefore wish to make public our thanks to the U. S. Office of Education for its support of this contract, and most especially to Edwin Hindsman, Executive Director of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, for his invitation to undertake this task. If, as one of our advisers suggested, we were foolhardy to accept the unequal challenge, we cannot even now regret that we entered the lists.

Theodore Andersson
Mildred Boyer

Austin, Texas
July 1969

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

On January 2, 1968, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed into law the Bilingual Education Act.[1] The President called attention to the significance of the new law in these words:

> *This bill authorizes a new effort to prevent dropouts; new programs for handicapped children; new planning help for rural schools. It also contains a special provision establishing bilingual education programs for children whose first language is not English. Thousands of children of Latin descent, young Indians, and others will get a better start – a better chance – in school....*
>
> *What this law means, is that we are now giving every child in America a better chance to touch his outermost limits – to reach the farthest edge of his talents and his dreams. We have begun a campaign to unlock the full potential of every boy and girl – regardless of his race or his region or his father's income.*[2]

Senator Ralph W. Yarborough of Texas, author of the first bilingual education bill ever introduced in either House of Congress, called it a "landmark" in education legislation.[3] The senior Senator from Texas deserves much credit for his work as Chairman of the Special Subcommittee on Bilingual Education in winning overwhelming congressional support for this innovative bill.

In the Foreword of the *Committee Print* of the Act Senator Wayne Morse of Oregon, Chairman of the Education Subcommittee, declared the enactment of this bill to be "of great significance to school systems of the country." He added, "such legislative authorization steps are, however, but initial moves. It is up to the teachers, the school administrators, and, above all, the parents of our school children working together to make these programs come to life in the classroom and on the campus. These programs should be fully funded to achieve their capabilities. They will be if teacher, administrator, and parent ask that they be, and can show that our children are benefited by the uses to which the funds are put."

The Bilingual Education Act (BEA) – passage of which would have been impossible as recently as five years ago, so rapidly is public opinion changing – was conceived primarily to meet the needs of "children who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English." It adds an important new chapter to the long story of this "nation of immigrants."[4]

The first, dim chapter of this story would relate, if only the facts were known, how the ancestors of our American Indians crossed the Bering Strait from northeast Asia and occupied the American continent. The Indians whom the Europeans found here on their arrival, numbering a million or so,[5] were at the beginning not greatly threatened by the small numbers of settlers. The fur trade with the whites even provided them with a period of unparalleled prosperity. Gradually, however, they were displaced by successive waves of pale-faced newcomers. Their loss of freedom, their inability to pursue their native ways of life, can never be made up to them, but the Bilingual Education Act at last recognizes their educational needs and suggests ways to meet them.[6]

To the Indians, America came increasingly to represent tragedy at the same time that it became the land of promise to growing numbers of Europeans, and later to Asians and Latin Americans, who were experiencing hunger, oppression, and hopelessness in their homelands. The trickle of immigration in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries–induced by such explorers as Ponce de León in Florida (1513); De Soto, discoverer of the Mississippi (1541); Coronado in New Mexico, Arizona, and Texas (1540-41); La Salle in Louisiana (1682); Father Junípero Serra, founder of the first California mission, in San Diego (1769); and Gálvez in Upper California (c. 1770) – swelled into torrents in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.[7] To control this influx, laws limiting immigration were passed in 1917 and again in 1921 and 1924. After the mid-century point these laws were felt to be too restrictive and ethnically biased and were liberalized in 1952, 1958, and 1960. A new immigration law enacted in 1965 and effective in 1968 abolished the national origins quota system and authorized small increases in the annual quota numbers.[8]

Today we wear "an ethnic coat of many colors" (Nelson Brooks), all but one strand of which has constantly been overlooked, denied, or degraded" (Joshua Fishman). The meeting of languages and the clash of cultures created tensions, which the Bilingual Education Act is designed to alleviate and can perhaps alleviate if it is expanded and adequately funded.

The status of English as the official language of the United States has never been in doubt. The question which Joshua Fishman's book on *Language Loyalty in the United States* has raised and which the Bilingual Education Act now raises again is whether or not the official position of English leaves room for the maintenance of other languages and cultures. Stated in another way, what should be the attitude and policy of the 90 percent (native English speakers) toward the other ten percent of our population (native speakers of other languages)?[9] These other languages surely do not constitute a threat to English. But are they a nuisance, or are they rather a resource which from a human and patriotic point of view ought to be conserved? These are fundamental questions, to which we shall return in later chapters.

Over the years Americans' views toward newcomers have fluctuated. In the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries the older American stock found it gratifying to accept the view that the New World was the land of promise and America a melting pot, which received countless immigrants who came from some two dozen countries in Europe and spoke even more different languages. Tossed together and stirred up, they were supposed to undergo a delectable transformation and emerge as Americans, all essentially alike and all of course speaking American English. Actually, this is more myth than fact. As Glazer and Moynihan point out in their book, *Beyond the Melting Pot* (1963), the melting did not always take place. Immigrants to America did not cease being what they were and did not, except in rather superficial ways, become something different when they were naturalized as American citizens. Changes that occurred were far less extensive and less structural than they were believed to be. In most cases a bicultural style developed which enabled American and ethnic identities to coexist and influence each other slowly over time. (Fishman) Even today we are regarded as one of the most multicultural nations in the world.

Attempting to define what an American is is intriguing, but the task is not a simple one. Some impressive people have tried, more or less successfully: among others, Tocqueville, Lord Bryce, Count Keyserling, Mead, Brogan, Gorer, Commager, Riesman, and Montagu.[10]

The difficulty in accurately describing an American does not, of course, prevent us from forming ideas concerning our fellow countrymen. Early arrivals to our shores acquired the privileged position of first comers and with it a special cohesiveness. Their descendents are bound together by a common language and culture and they, like everyone else, are most comfortable with "their own kind of folk." It takes an effort to go out to meet speakers of other languages or representatives of other cultures. Members of new groups, all of them minorities, feel typically threatened or overwhelmed by the dominant group and are especially prone to seek comfort in association with *their* own. Language thus serves the double function of bringing members of ethnic groups closer together and of shutting out members of other groups. The question is how best to deal with this fact of life. Must people with different languages and cultures be suspicious and hostile toward one another? Or can they develop mutual tolerance, understanding, and respect?

English-speaking children in the United States naturally begin their formal schooling in their mother tongue, while children of Navajo, Chinese, Japanese, Eskimo, German, or any of half a hundred other language backgrounds are not encouraged to begin their formal learning in *their* mother tongue. English-speaking children profit from carefully prepared reading-readiness and reading programs while children with other language backgrounds have no such provisions for reading in their language. Not only do such practices leave them illiterate in their mother tongue, they also indirectly foster illiteracy in English by forcing them to read in English before they are ready. Developmental psychology is applied to the education of English-speaking children, but not to non-English-speaking children, whose needs are greater. The mediocre results that have been so well publicized of late should hardly surprise us.[11]

This wide-spread negative attitude toward the maintenance and cultivation of other languages spoken natively in American homes does not, for the most part, spring from deliberate perversity. Many, in fact, think it is considerate to urge non-English-speaking children to devote themselves singlemindedly to the learning of English. Many genuinely welcome Mexican Americans, for example, into the mainstream if they can "operate" in English and adopt enough of the ways of Anglo-Saxons to pass as "one of us."

The Spanish-surname American too has been conditioned by decades to realize that in fact he must learn English to compete successfully in a society that believes he must. The error comes in also believing that the maintenance and cultivation of Spanish will somehow interfere with his learning English. No wonder he is confused by recent changes in the story. Anglos have told him for generations that he should forget his Spanish and learn English; now he is told by these same people that learning to read and write in Spanish will make it easier to learn reading and writing in English. He is told, too, that not only can he compete with the English-speaking child in English; he can also excel him in Spanish. Thus he may be proud both of his inherited language and culture and of the official language and culture of his country. In fact he may one day find himself representing his country in another Spanish-speaking nation, provided his education has prepared him for such a role. This is the vista which Senator Ralph Yarborough and his colleagues in the United States Congress have opened up for countless children who had previously been doomed to educational underdevelopment.

Non-English-speaking children are not the only ones who stand to profit from such a reform in our educational system. English-speaking children who are fortunate enough to live in a community in which another language is spoken have an unusual opportunity to learn this language. At the same time, they may also become sensitive to another culture and hence be better able to understand and interact with the different people around them.

In the following chapters we hope to spell out this educational promise—by providing, both in the text and in the appendices, background information essential to the understanding of the complex subject of bilingual schooling; by suggesting a rationale; and by proposing guidelines for the development of bilingual programs to meet local needs and circumstances.

The subject is so many-faceted and the relevant literature so extensive that we have not been able to digest it all. We prefer therefore that our readers consider our book as a preliminary effort, to be improved after more study and research. We invite criticisms, which we shall use or transmit to others, as may best serve the cause of bilingual education.

NOTES

[1] In the House of Representatives the vote on the H. R. 7819 on May 24, 1967 was 294 in favor and 122 opposed. (See the *Congressional Record Daily Digest* for this date, p. D252.) The Senate approved this bill as amended on December 11, 1967, by a vote of 71 to 7. (See *Congressional Record*, December 11, 1967, S18, 357.) On December 15, 1967, the House and Senate agreed to a conference report. (See United States Congress, Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, *Committee Print Elementary and Secondary Education Act Amendments of 1967 with Background Materials and Tables*, Prepared for the Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, March 1968, p. 39.)

For easy reference the Bilingual Education Act (BEA) is printed as Appendix A of this monograph. Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended in 1967, is known as Public Law 90-247.

The BEA has been placed under the administration of Ralph Becker, Director of the Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, United States Office of Education.

[2] See *Committee Print*, footnote 1, pp. 40-41.

[3] *Congressional Record,* December 11, 1967, S18,352.

[4] John F. Kennedy, *A Nation of Immigrants* (1963).

[5] *Encyclopaedia Britannica,* 1965 edition, Vol. XII, "Indian, North American," p. 65. Using as a source James Mackey's "The Aboriginal Population of America North of Mexico," Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collection Vol. LXXX, No. 7 (1928), the Encyclopaedia authors cite the following estimated figures: United States (except Alaska), 849,000; Alaska, 773,000; British America, 221,000; Greenland, 10,000; approximate total, 1,153,000.

[6] Although American Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts are by definition included in the target population of the BEA ("children who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English" and "in schools having a high concentration of such children from families (A) with incomes below $3,000 per year, or (B) receiving payments under a program of aid to families with dependent children under a State plan approved under Title IV of the Social Security Act"), and despite the fact that it was the intention of Congress that these groups should be served (See *Congressional Record*, December 11, 1967, S18,350.), the Act provides no direct way of extending its benefits to such children when they are enrolled in schools operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). To be sure, there is nothing, except possibly the lack of funds, to prevent the BIA from operating its own bilingual program.

[7] See Appendix C, Demographic Data, especially Table 8 and Table 1.

[8] See Appendix D, Immigration Legislation.

[9] For a tentative list of the twenty-five most numerous language groups in the U.S. as of 1960 see Appendix C, Demographic Data, Table 15.

[10] Alexis de Tocqueville, *De la démocratie en Amérique* (1835, 1840); James Bryce, *The American Commonwealth* (1888); Hermann Alexander Keyserling, *America Set Free* (1929); Margaret Mead, *And Keep Your Powder Dry: An Anthropologist Looks at America* (1942); Denis Brogan, *The American Character* (1944) and *American in the Modern World* (1960); Geoffrey Gorer, *The American People: A Study in National Character* (1948); Henry Steele Commager, *The American Mind: An Interpretation of American Thought and Character Since the 1880's* (1950); David Riesman, *The Lonely Crowd: A Study of the Changing American Character* (1950); Ashley Montagu, *The American Way of Life* (1967).

[11] One example is Senator Ralph Yarborough's statement made at the first session of the *Hearings Before the Special Subcommittee on Bilingual Education* of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, held in Washington, D. C., on May 18, 1967 (pp. 1-2): "The failure of our schools to educate Spanish-speaking students is reflected in comparative dropout rates. In the five Southwestern States...Anglos 14 years of age and over have completed an average of 12 years of school compared with 8.1 years for Spanish-surname students. I regret to say that my own State of Texas ranks at the bottom, with a median of only 4.7 years of school completed by persons of Spanish surname, according to the 1960 census."

See also Appendix G.

CHAPTER II

DEFINITIONS

> *Bilingualism is for me the fundamental problem of linguistics....*[1]
>
> *–Roman Jakobson*

The terms "bilingual," "bilingualism," "bilingual schooling" seem to carry their meaning clearly within them. And yet a discussion involving any one of these words soon reveals the strikingly different concepts that people have of them.

Thinking primarily of the non-specialist reader, the distinguished scholar and authority on bilingualism, Einar Haugen, has prepared the following succinct definitions of "language," "dialect," "correctness," and "bilingualism."

Language. The word "language" is ambiguous and may easily be misunderstood. We exclude at once such meanings as "the language of flowers" or "the language of mathematics," where it refers to any code that is used for communication. As scientific linguists use the word, "language" is a specifically human form of communication in which sounds (or as a substitute for these, letters) are combined into words and sentences in order to convey meanings from one person to another. The capacity to perform this remarkable feat is inborn in every normal child, and within the first four years of this life he will quite inevitably acquire the sounds, the grammar, and the basic vocabulary of whatever language he hears around him. Being human, he will never acquire it in exactly the same form as it is used by those he hears it from, which is the reason that languages gradually change over time. In this scientific sense of language every human being has at least one language, his first language, sometimes called his mother tongue. He may go on to learn a second and a third later, or he may have two first languages, which he learns in his earliest childhood; in either case he is a "bilingual" by our definition, as will appear later. The main point is that no matter what the social status or the educational achievement of his environment, what he learns is a language in the strict scientific sense, just as an orchid and a dandelion and a tumbleweed are all plants, regardless of their social and economic value.

Dialect. It has long been recognized that there are many different languages in the world and that many of them (perhaps all) have branched off from each other by regular changes over long periods of time. Isolation has been the primary factor in this change, since people who communicate regularly tend to stay together in their language in order to make sure that they are understood. It is also well known that every language is spoken in a variety of dialects and that such dialect differences have been the beginning of all the different languages of the world that have branched off from one another. So English and German are by origin dialects of Germanic that grew into separate languages, just as Spanish and French are dialects of Latin; and, farther back, just as Latin and Germanic are dialects of a long-lost

Indo-European language. The differences that separate any two dialects of the same language may consist of differences in sounds, grammar, or vocabulary; as long as these are not great enough to make understanding impossible, we may still speak of them as dialects in the strictly linguistic sense. Each speaker has his own personal dialect, which is sometimes called an "idiolect," but in the main he shares with the fellow members of his community a dialect that is part of the cultural heritage of the community. To those whose first language it is, the dialect carries all the meanings and overtones of home, family, love, and friendship. It is the instrument of their thinking and feeling, their gateway to the world.

Correctness. Dialects differ not only in their linguistic structure but also in the attitudes which people hold towards them. Every dialect, no matter who speaks it, is objectively equally good for the expression of what its speakers have a need to express. Its sounds are equally easy to pronounce and its grammar equally easy to master for those who learn them as part of their first language. Its vocabulary reflects the cultural level of its speakers, and it can be expanded by training and education from the simple basic vocabulary of childhood to that of the most complex scientific and philosophical thought. Only a few dialects have been so expanded and made into standard languages for the use of whole nations, with standards of correctness which are imposed through the school systems. English and Spanish are among such standard languages. But in the general population common dialects of these languages continue to be spoken and serve as the daily medium of living communities. Any attitude that implies that these are "wrong" or "bad" is built on a standard of correctness which overlooks the validity of these dialects within their communities. A dialect that may be called "non-standard" or even "sub-standard" English or Spanish usually has long roots in history and is for those who use it a valid language, through which alone its users can express their full personalities. The importance of the mother tongue in instruction has only recently been recognized by many educators. They have overlooked that the mother tongue may for many children be the very "non-standard" dialect which the educators are trying to eliminate by teaching standard dialect. When the differences are not between one dialect and another, but between wholly distinct languages, the necessity of giving full consideration to this problem becomes even more pressing.

Bilingualism. There have been many attempts to produce an exact definition of bilingualism, but the only agreement among its various users is that it refers to the knowledge and use of two languages by the same persons. Some writers emphasize the *use* of the languages, e.g. Weinreich (1953), who defined bilingualism as "the practice of alternately using two languages" (similarly Mackey 1962, Brooks 1969). Since it is quite possible to be bilingual without using one of the two languages one knows, others have emphasized the *knowledge* or competence of the speakers, e.g., Haugen (1956), who defined a bilingual as "one who knows two languages" (so also Bloomfield, 1933, who spoke of "control of two languages"). Another difference in the use of the term is that some scholars extend it to include the mastery of more than two languages (in recognition of the fact that the phenomena involved are essentially similar), which is more precisely referred to as *multilingualism* or *polyglossy*. By contrast, one who knows only one language is called a *monolingual* or a *unilingual*.[2]

Within this framework, however, the major problem is that bilinguals differ widely both in their knowledge and in their use of the two languages they master. Knowledge may extend from a few scraps of language to the mastery possessed by a highly educated native speaker and writer. The usual definition has been a rather narrow one, summed up in Bloomfield's use of the term "native-like control" (1933); a German writer, Maximilian Braun,[3] demanded "active, completely equal mastery of two or more languages." Such bilinguals are rare, if they exist at all, and most students prefer a wider definition. In trying to set a lower limit, Haugen (1953) suggested that this be the ability of a speaker to "produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language." Diebold (1961) went a step further in including also a passive knowledge, which required the users only to *understand* speakers of another language, not to speak the language themselves.

Bilinguals may thus be classified according to their skill in their two languages along a more or less infinite scale. Broadly considered, there are bilinguals who have one dominant and one secondary language, while there are others who are reasonably balanced.[4] There are bilinguals who switch easily from one language to the other, and some who find it extremely difficult and confusing to do so. It is very common to find bilinguals who have specialized their use of the languages, so that they can speak of some topics in one and of others in the other.[5]

In considering bilingualism as a "problem" we must not forget that for millions of people throughout the world bilingualism is no problem at all. In many countries it is quite simply a way of life for all or some communities and occasions no particular comment; for educated persons in many countries it is a matter of course that one speaks and even writes more than one language. The problem arises only when a population through emigration or conquest becomes a part of a community where another language is spoken and this language is imposed on them through the school system or by other authorities. We may call this "asymmetrical bilingualism," an example of which is the topic of this book.

To Haugen's definitions, we add two other brief statements on the meaning of "dialect" and its relation to "standard."

> *All languages have dialects. The so-called "standard" is but itself a dialect, and in many language areas there are both regional standard dialects (e.g., London vs. San Francisco vs. Sydney, or Madrid vs. Mexico City vs. Buenos Aires), and non-standard dialects in the same areas, each with its regional hue. Furthermore, language is constantly changing, indeed nowhere faster than among speakers of "standard" dialects; and many of the features of present "non-standard" dialects simply represent survivals of elements which were once in "standard" use, rather than, as is so often erroneously assumed, "corruptions" of the standard. (Rudolph Troike)*

> *It might be easier for non-linguists to understand the adequacy of non-standard dialects if they were thought of in terms of* different dialects for

different purposes. *Every educated speaker of standard English uses the following varieties: formal written style for written reports, technical articles, and the like; formal spoken style for public speeches or lectures; informal written style for personal letters; informal colloquial spoken style for conversation with family and colleagues. For the speaker of non-standard English, the normal, adequate dialect for use in the beginning stages of education, is his own non-standard dialect. He needs to learn standard colloquial for use with possible employers, etc.; he needs to learn standard colloquial written style for business letters; he may eventually also need to control the more formal spoken and written styles and certainly he will need to understand them. (Sarah Gudschinsky)*

As Fishman puts it, individuals who have meaningful roles in a variety of milieus acquire competence in several varieties of language or dialect. It is a proper function of the school, not to destroy the learner's native dialect, but to assist him in acquiring such additional dialects or languages as may be of value to him.

The Description and Measurement of Bilingualism. For two decades or more linguists have become increasingly concerned with the description (definition) and measurement of bilingualism. In 1952 William F. Mackey, one of the leading students of bilingualism, wrote:[6] "The inadequacy of definition...is not the only theoretical drawback to the study of bilinguals. There is also the lack of any adequate system of classification and measurement. The problem of classification includes the following factors: levels of proficiency, similarity and differences between languages, the social function of each language, the effects, through bilingualism, of one language upon another." Writing on the same subject again in 1956, Mackey suggested that: "The solution to the problem of definition is to consider bilingualism (or multilingualism) not as an absolute but as a relative concept. The question should not be simply 'Is a person bilingual?' but rather 'How bilingual is he?'....Such a definition would put the subject on a more stable theoretical basis and would open the way to a systematic measurement of the *degree* of bilingualism. It would lead to classifications which would include the following divisions:

1. The number of languages involved....
2. The type of languages used....
3. Influence of one language upon another....
4. Degree of proficiency....
5. Vacillation....
6. Social function"[7]....

The Report on an *International Seminar on Bilingualism in Education* held in Aberystwyth, Wales, August 20–September 2, 1960, and sponsored by the United Kingdom National Commission for UNESCO–contributed further to the description of bilingualism.[8] The Report proposes the following key elements in the description of individual bilingualism, followed by charts for recording analytical observations under each heading:[9]

I. Number – i.e. the number of languages used by the individual (e.g. language A and language B).
II. Type – i.e. the linguistic relationship between language A and language B.
III. Function – i.e. the conditions of learning and use of the two languages.
IV. Degree – i.e. proficiency in each language.
V. Alternation – i.e. "switching" from one language to another.
VI. Interaction – i.e. the way in which the languages affect each other linguistically, namely by importation and substitution.

Encouraged by his colleagues at Aberystwyth, William Mackey prepared in 1962, *The Description of Bilingualism,*[10] in which he elaborated his earlier thinking into a general framework around the concepts of *degree, function, alternation,* and *interference.*

In June 1967 the Canadian National Commission for UNESCO sponsored at the University of Moncton, New Brunswick, an International Seminar on the Description and Measurement of Bilingualism. Publication of the report is now being awaited.

It may be inferred from the foregoing that the description of bilingualism is far from having found its definitive expression. It touches too many specialized disciplines. In the conclusion of *The Description of Bilingualism* Mackey provides an admirable persepective:

> *Bilingualism cannot be described within the science of linguistics; we must go beyond. Linguistics has been interested in bilingualism only in so far as it could be used as an explanation for changes in a language, since language, not the individual, is the proper concern of this science. Psychology has regarded bilingualism as an influence on mental processes. Sociology has treated bilingualism as an element in culture conflict. Pedagogy has been concerned with bilingualism in connection with school organization and media of instruction. For each of these disciplines bilingualism is incidental; it is treated as a special case or as an exception to the norm. Each discipline, pursuing its own particular interests in its own special way, will add from time to time to the growing literature on bilingualism (see bibliographies in Haugen, 1956, Weinreich, 1953, and Jones, 1960). But it seems to add little to our understanding of bilingualism as such, with its complex psychological, linguistic, and social interrelationships.*
>
> *What is needed, to begin with, is a perspective in which these interrelationships may be considered.*[11]

Bilingual Schooling or Bilingual Education. While such efforts at more nearly complete description move forward, what is bilingual schooling? We take as our working definition that of the Draft Guidelines to the Bilingual Education Program,[12] which seems sufficiently broad: "Bilingual education is instruction in *two languages* and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part of or all of the school curriculum. Study of the history and culture associated with a student's mother tongue is considered an integral part of *bilingual education.*"

Some Misconceptions. Finally, having sampled authoritative definitions and settled on those that seem adequate to the purposes of the Bilingual Education Act, we come to what appears to us to be misconceptions that need to be rectified.

Confusion of ESL (English as a Second Language) and Bilingual Education. One widely held misconception is that ESL is a form of bilingual education. As we shall see, ESL *is* an important component of bilingual education; but unless the home language is used as a medium for teaching a part or the whole of the curriculum, we believe education cannot properly be called bilingual.[13] To call ESL programs bilingual only causes confusion. Thus, for example, in a U.S. Office of Education report of Projects to Advance Creativity in Education (PACE) entitled "Bilingual Education Projects–SR-68-25 Projects Funded in FY 1966, FY 1967, and FY 1968," there are reported descriptions of selected planning and operational programs funded under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The foreword, dated August 12, 1968, defines bilingual education as "the use of two different languages, such as English and German, in the regular classroom educational process." In spite of the title of the document and in spite of the definition of bilingual education given, the list includes projects which are definitely *not* covered by the definition. Thus, "bilingual education" is used as an official label to designate not only ESL projects, but also a project for the transfer of student records by data processing equipment and general cultural awareness programs. Such indiscriminate use of the term renders it meaningless.

What's in a Name? Spanish-surname persons in the Southwest are frequently called bilinguals though they may have no knowledge of Spanish at all. Misclassification on the basis of name is likely to continue until we recognize that the term "bilingual" is inappropriate unless the person concerned does indeed have some knowledge of two languages. The "nationality" of his surname is an unreliable indicator of which language or languages an American speaks.

In California we were informed that the word "bilingual" has acquired a disparaging connotation ("uneducated"). We keep the term and use it in its technical sense, remembering, as Haugen has said above, that "in many countries [bilingualism] is quite simply a way of life...."

On the subject of definitions there is no easy stopping-place. Specialists in linguistics–especially psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics–in psychology, in sociology, in anthropology, and in education are all busily studying various forms of bilingualism, diglossia, and bilingual education. Each passing year will see the progressive refinement of terms and concepts. For our present purposes we believe that the definitions here given will serve as an adequate basis for the following study.

NOTES

[1] Indiana University, *Indiana University Publications in Anthropology and Linguistics*, Memoir 8, April 1953, p. GE 16.

[2] Editors' note: The term "monoglot" has also been used.

[3] *Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen*, Vol. 199 (1937), p. 115.

[4] Editors' note: As Haugen has pointed out in the preceding paragraph, balanced bilingualism or equilingualism–the perfect and equal control of two languages–is not only not a necessary condition of bilingualism but it is extremely rare and indeed all but imposible, at least for any length of time.

[5] "Diglossia" is a term which has become common since 1959, when Charles Ferguson first proposed it in connection with societal or national bilingualism. It refers to the presence within a society or country of two languages or dialects that serve different purposes and therefore maintain a high degree of stability. Like "bilingualism," the concept of "diglossia" is being constantly elaborated and refined by such linguists as John J. Gumperz (e.g., "Types of Linguistic Communities," *Anthropological Linguistics*, Vol. IV, No. 1, 1962, pp. 28-40; "Linguistic and Social Interaction in Two Communities," *American Anthropologist*, Vol. LXVI, Part 2, 1964, pp. 137-154; "On the Ethnology of Linguistic Change;" in William Bright, ed., *Sociolinguistics*, The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1966, pp. 27-38; "On the Linguistic Markers of Bilingual Communication," *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2, April 1967, pp. 48-57); Joshua Fishman "Varieties of Ethnicity and Language Consciousness," *Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics*, Vol. XVIII, Georgetown University, 1965, pp. 69-79; "Who Speaks What Language to Whom and When?" *Linguistique*, 1965, 2, pp. 67-88; "Language Maintenance and Language Shift; The American Immigrant Case Within a General Theoretical Prespective," *Sociologus*, Vol. XVI, 1965, pp. 19-38; "Some Contrasts Between Linguistically Homogeneous and Linguistically Heterogeneous Polities," *Sociological Inquiry*, Vol. XXXVI, 1966, pp. 146-158; "Bilingualism With or Without Diglossia; Diglossia With or Without Bilingualism," *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2, April 1967, pp. 29-38. See also Fishman, ed., *Readings in the Sociology of Language*. The Hague: Mouton, 1968); and Heinz Kloss ("Types of Multilingual Communities: A Discussion of Ten Variables," *Sociological Inquiry*, Vol. XXXVI, No. 2, Spring 1966, pp. 135-145; "Bilingualism and Nationalism," *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2, April 1967, pp. 37-47).

By way of clarification, the latter (Kloss) writes:

The concept of diglossia has emerged in two phases. As originally conceived by Ferguson in 1959, it referred to the presence, within a society or nation, of two closely and recognizably related languages or dialects (e.g., French and Creole in Haiti, standard German and Schwyzertütsch in Switzerland; Koranic and vernacular Arabic in Egypt) between which a definite and stable division of functions has taken place. In an article I published in 1966 I foresaw that an attempt would be made to apply the concept to the functional "division of labor" between unrelated languages and suggested to speak of "in-diglossia" in the case of kin-tongues (in keeping with the original concept of Ferguson) and of "out-diglossia" in the case of genetically unrelated (or only distantly related) languages (e.g., Spanish and Guaraní in Paraguay). (See Kloss, "Types of Multilingual Communities: A Discussion of Ten Variables," p. 138.)

The next year J. A. Fishman published his paper "Bilingualism With and Without Diglossia; Diglossia With and Without Bilingualism," wherein he broadened the concept of diglossia so as to cover what I had proposed to call "out-diglossia." But for this broader concept Fishman simply retained the original term "diglossia." Brilliant as his essay is, it inevitably leads to some terminological and even conceptual confusion, especially since Ferguson's unaltered essay has been reprinted (in Dell Hymes 1964, pp. 429-439) and his use of the term been followed by several authors.

[6] Pédagogie-Orientation (de l'Université Laval), Vol. II, No. 6 (1952), p. 137.

[7] "Toward a Redefinition of Bilingualism," *Journal of the Canadian Linguistic Association*, March 1956.

[8] London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1965, p. 139.

[9] Ibid., pp. 166-171.

[10] *Canadian Journal of Linguistics*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (Spring 1962).

[11] Ibid., pp. 84-85.

[12] See Appendix B.

[13] See Appendices A and B, The Bilingual Education Act and Guidelines.

CHAPTER III

BILINGUAL SCHOOLING: AN HISTORICAL SAMPLING

There is probably not a nation in the world without some bilingual population, and bilingual schooling has also been widespread. But the origin and status of bilingualism in different countries, as well as the national policies underlying bilingual education, have varied so widely that care must be taken in interpreting the results. Clearly, we cannot assume that practices which have succeeded abroad under entirely different circumstances will necessarily succeed in the United States. They may, or they may not. On the other hand, we would be foolish indeed to ignore the experience of others in other settings. Without any attempt at complete coverage, we have therefore selected a few examples to lend perspective and to give us an orientation. Let us, however, begin with a review of the situation in the United States.[1]

Bilingual Schooling in the United States

The history of public bilingual schooling in our country divides itself into two main parts: pre-World War I and post-1963. Kloss (1942 and 1963), who has studied this subject in great detail, distinguishes in the first part two segments and two phases:[2]

First Segment: Public Elementary Schools

Phase I: 1839-1880

German was the only non-English tongue admitted as a medium of teaching except for French in Louisiana and, from 1848, Spanish in New Mexico. The heyday of the public bilingual school was before the Civil War.

Phase II: 1880-1917

There were German-English bilingual schools in Cincinnati; Indianapolis;[3] Baltimore; New Ulm, Minnesota; and in an unknown number of rural places. In other schools German was taught as a subject, but not used as a medium of instruction. Norwegian, Czech, Italian, Polish, and Dutch were also occasionally taught but not used as teaching mediums.[4]

Second Segment: Non-Public (Chiefly Parochial) Elementary Schools

Phase I: (Before 1800)

German schools flourished throughout the country.[5] Also this period saw the beginning of many French schools in New England and many Scandinavian and some Dutch schools in the Midwest. Many of these schools were not actually bilingual in their curricula; they were non-English schools where English was taught as a subject.

Phase II: (After 1880)

This period saw the multiplication of French and Scandinavian schools as well as the founding of numerous parochial schools especially for Catholic newcomers from Eastern and Southern Europe: e.g., Poles, Lithuanians, Slovaks.

Kloss has reminded us of the considerable number of non-public Franco-American schools in New England between the two World Wars. These included both elementary and secondary schools as well as colleges. Kloss also mentions the Chinese, and a considerably larger number of Japanese, afternoon schools in Hawaii and on the West Coast. For an account of other afternoon or all-day parochial schools of newer immigrant groups, the reader is referred to Fishman's chapter on education in his *Language Loyalty in the United States.*

Rebirth of Bilingual Schooling, Miami, 1963. In an effort to meet the educational needs of the children of the Cubans who pour into Miami at the rate of some 3,000 a month the Dade County, Florida, Schools undertook in 1963 a completely bilingual program in grades one, two, and three of the Coral Way School, Miami, with plans to move up one grade each year. The first director of this program was Dr. Pauline Rojas, who had had long experience in Puerto Rico. At first, participation was made voluntary and a few parents chose to have their children follow the all-English program. By the end of the first year, however, the bilingual program had won almost unanimous approval and it was no longer necessary to offer the unilingual option. Approximately half of the instruction is given in Spanish by competent Cuban teachers and half in English by American teachers. The American and Cuban teachers working in the same grade form a cooperative team and confer frequently in order to coordinate their teaching.[6] In addition to this notable bilingual program, which has now been extended to two other elementary schools, Dade County offers Spanish as a subject in every grade from one through twelve in all other Miami schools. To start with, there were equal numbers of English- and Spanish-speaking children in the Coral Way School, but now the balance is steadily shifting in the direction of the Cuban children. The socioeconomic level is also declining; for, as the Castro regime continues, more lower-income Cubans are seeking escape.

An evaluation of the achievement in the Coral Way School in language arts and arithmetic shows that the bilingual program is as effective as the regular program in English. Dr. Mabel Wilson Richardson, the evaluator, writes: "It must be noted here that, in addition to performing as well as the control group in the regular curriculum, the English-speaking pupils were learning a second language and the Spanish-speaking pupils were learning to read and write their native language."[7] The Dade County bilingual program has the distinction of being the first public elementary school program in this second period of bilingual schooling in the United States, and it is also widely considered as one of the best.

One year later, in 1964, two noteworthy programs were launched in Texas, one in the Nye School of the United Consolidated Independent School District in Webb County, outside of Laredo, and the other in the San Antonio Independent School District.

United Consolidated Program. An interested school board and an enthusiastic superintendent were responsible for the launching of this program in the first grades of Nye School, in which half the children are English speakers and half Spanish speakers. In 1965 the program was expanded into the second grades and in 1966 into the third grades. In 1966 too the other two elementary schools in this sparsely populated school district—with an area slightly greater than that of Delaware—began their bilingual programs in grade one and planned to move up one grade at a time. The teaching, in English and Spanish in all elementary school subjects, is done by bilingual teachers who are native speakers of Spanish and fluent also in English. They move without effort back and forth in Spanish and English, using each language about half of the time. In the fourth grade, where the self-contained classroom changes to the departmental organization, Spanish is continued as a subject one class period a day. An evaluation of learning in mathematics reveals that bilingual learning—for both Anglo and Mexican American children—gives better results than does learning in English alone. The enthusiasm of school board, administration, and teachers has enabled this program to prosper, to attract numerous visitors, and even to entice families to move into the district.[8]

San Antonio Independent School District Program. There are by now (1969) at least two other school districts in San Antonio that have bilingual programs, but the one in the San Antonio ISD is the oldest and best known in the city. It was begun in 1964, under the direction of Dr. Thomas D. Horn of the University of Texas at Austin, and has been carried forward chiefly by Dr. Elizabeth Ott of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. Originally it was a reading-readiness program in English for Spanish-speaking children in selected schools in neighborhoods which are all Mexican American. New materials were prepared and new teaching techniques were developed. These were used for thirty minutes in the morning and thirty in the afternoon, in English in one experimental stream and in Spanish in another. By 1967 the success of the program was sufficiently recognized to permit a somewhat greater emphasis on the use of Spanish, starting in grades one and two, and to designate it as a bilingual program. The teaching in Spanish is all done by native speakers, either the regular classroom teacher or another who exchanges with the regular teacher. The subject matter stresses the self-concept and includes language arts, science, and—recently—social studies. The relatively limited emphasis on the use of Spanish—some eighty minutes a day—suggests that, in contrast with Dade County and United Consolidated, this program is more concerned with transfer than it is with maintenance of Spanish as such. Spanish is used essentialy to build the self-concept of children and to facilitate their learning of English as the eventually exclusive medium of learning.[9]

Other Bilingual Programs in the United States.[10] Bilingual programs began in Pecos, New Mexico, and in Edinburg, Texas, in 1965. In 1966, similar programs started in the Harlandale Independent School District of San Antonio; in Del Rio, Texas; in Zapata, Texas, in Calexico, California; Marysville, California; and Rough Rock, Arizona. The following programs began in 1967: Las Cruces, New Mexico; Hoboken, New Jersey; Corpus Christi, Texas; Del Valle, Texas (Creedmoor School); and St. Croix, Virgin Islands.

This list, consisting almost exclusively of public elementary schools, is merely suggestive. With the exception of Navajo, taught along with English at the Rough Rock Demonstration School, the two languages concerned are Spanish and English. Approximately ninety percent of the BEA proposals submitted in 1968-1969, and of the projects funded, involved these two languages.

For further information on current bilingual programs we refer the reader to Appendix V, Bilingual Programs in the United States. Part I consists of programs known to have existed in May 1969, fifty-six in number, of which forty-nine were in preprimary or elementary grades, four in secondary schools, and three in colleges. A second list consists of the seventy-six projects which have been funded under Title VII, BEA, for 1969-1970. We have indicated with an asterisk fifteen projects which are continuations or transformations of programs in the first list.

Summary. Twelve years ago there was nowhere in the country any perceptible interest in organizing bilingual programs in public schools. And yet a potential must have existed, for soon after a successful program was launched in Miami, it was followed, as we have seen, by increasing numbers each year. We do not know exactly how to account for this rapid change in public temper. Did the relative success of FLES (foreign languages in the elementary school) suggest the bilingual pattern? Or was the example of such non-English medium schools as the Lycée Français in New York a cue? Or the bilingual schools in Latin America? Or should one instead seek the explanation in the tremendous changes taking place in our society, such as the Supreme Court Desegregation Decision of 1954 and the increasing search for identity and self-assertion on the part of ethnic groups and of low-income classes? Whatever the explanation, opinion has evolved rapidly and the American public now seems to be of a mind to give this experiment a new try.

Bilingualism and Bilingual Schooling in Other Parts of the World

In sampling bilingualism in other parts of the world we shall first consider Switzerland, the only officially plurilingual country we know of, then take up four officially bilingual nations: Belgium, Canada, Finland, and the Union of South Africa. Thereafter we shall see what can be learned from a selection of officially monolingual countries that have nevertheless to deal with minority languages.

Official Bilingualism and Multilingualism. Most countries in the world, however many languages may be spoken within their borders, have only one official language. A few are officially bilingual. And Switzerland occupies a unique position with three official languages—French, German, and Italian—and one additional nationally recognized language, Romansch.

Switzerland. Of Switzerland's three official languages, German is spoken by seventy-four percent of the population, French by twenty percent, and Italian by four percent. Romansch, which also enjoys national recognition, is spoken by one percent of the population. In addition, German-speaking Swiss have a language or dialect for intimate use in the home or among close friends, known as Swiss German or Schwyzertütsch. The contact of these various languages does not cause any notable friction. Switzerland's language policy is based on the "territorial principle": that is, in a given canton the language of the majority is official and speakers of other languages are expected to learn and use it. But a "personality principle" is used at the federal level, according to which any individual may be attended to in his own language, no matter where he lives. Individual Swiss citizens are not notably more bilingual or more plurilingual than other Europeans. Their elementary schooling takes place in their respective mother tongues, and a second language is learned at the beginning of the secondary school. Cases of teaching in and through more than one language in the Swiss elementary school have not been reported.[11]

Belgium. Popularly considered a bilingual country, Belgium is more accurately described as a combination of two officially unilingual areas separated by a fixed linguistic boundary, which crosses the middle of the country from east to west. The present language legislation dates back to 1963, at which time the government legally separated the country into the two areas (the territorial principle). In the northern area, only Dutch is available for administrative services and Dutch is the medium of instruction in all publicly supported elementary and secondary schools. To the South, only French is used, in the same fashion. Matters of national concern are announced bilingually. Brussels and the immediately surrounding area have both Dutch and French schools and are the only parts of the country to enjoy a special bilingual status. The hostility between the two language groups appears to be beyond immediate alleviation. The French-speaking Walloons of the South feel that since theirs is a language of international prestige they have little need to learn the other official language, Dutch. The Flemings, on the other hand, feel incensed by the attitude of the Walloons and do not see why the Flemings should carry the entire burden of communication, particularly since they are in the ascendency, both numerically (about sixty percent) and economically. Neither group seems to be motivated to learn two languages in order to build one unified bilingual nation. By resorting to the territorial principle the government hopes to maintain a degree of tranquillity in this sharply divided nation.[12]

Canada. Canada's two official tongues, English and French, are both international languages of prestige, but English speakers outnumber French speakers about two to one and have a great economic advantage. Canada's commonwealth status and proximity to the United States in addition tend to favor the English Canadians. For this reason, the pressure is greater on the French speakers to learn English than on the English speakers to learn French. Until five years ago, French-speaking Canadians were treated legally as a minority. At that time, the government created the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, to study the thorny language question. This Commission, created on a temporary basis, produced or elicited 400 briefs by representatives of the two official languages as well as by different linguistic minorities, including Ukrainians, Poles, and Italians. One hundred research reports were also produced, which will be used by the Commission in preparing its official report of twelve volumes. At this writing, three volumes have been published: *A Preliminary Report of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism*; Book I, *A General Introduction: The Official Languages*; and Book II, *Education.* Minorities other than the French-speaking are waiting for more adequate treatment of their problems in a later volume. These initial volumes, though they cannot be expected to satisfy all factions equally, represent an admirable effort at objectivity and scholarliness. They stand as a kind of model of what needs in the first instance to be done in countries where language and culture differences constitute serious problems.

A multilingual country like Canada[13] should be fertile ground for bilingual education, and indeed there are extensive efforts by language groups to maintain their languages and cultures in private schools. The two official languages are of course taught extensively in public schools, where the common pattern is to use the majority language of the particular province as the medium of instruction and to teach the other official language as a subject. Bilingual schooling in the sense defined by the Draft Guidelines to the Bilingual Education Program (Appendix B), that is, using two languages as mediums of instruction for part or all of the curriculum, is rare in Canada, as it is in most nations.

Worthy of note is the unusual case of Welland, a city of 40,000 located in southern Ontario, a few miles west of Niagara Falls. The 8,000 Franco-Ontarians living in Welland are completely isolated from the French-speaking communities living in the northern and eastern parts of the province. Nevertheless, thanks to the fact that the Welland public schools provide education for the French-Canadian children in their mother tongue, both French and English speakers of this small city have been able to preserve their own language and culture in educated form.

"Some of the French Canadian children in Welland are accommodated in French-language classes in English-language schools, but the majority of them attend schools in which all the pupils have French as their mother tongue."[14] In two such schools French is used as the exclusive medium of instruction in K through 6 as well as the medium of communication in the classroom and gymnasium and on the playground. In grade 3 English is introduced as a subject and continued through grade 6. Upon completion of grade 6 the children move to a "senior public school" (grades 7 and 8), where French continues to be the language of instruction for most subjects. "With the opening of Confederation Secondary School last September [1968], it became possible for the French Canadian children of Welland to continue their bilingual education throughout the secondary grades within the publicly supported school system."[15]

In thus emphasizing teaching French speakers in and through French the Welland schools do not neglect English but rather take advantage of the local circumstances.

> *Although English as a school subject is new to the Grade 3 French-speaking pupil of Welland, English as both a spoken and a written language is familiar. Except for the hours he spends in school, he is immersed in a predominantly English environment. Although French is the language of his family, he also hears English at home—whenever the radio or television set is turned on. In all probability there are English-language newspapers, magazines and books in his own home. In the streets of Welland, on buses, in restaurants and stores, the French-Canadian child hears English spoken and he sees that street signs, public notices, and advertisements are in English. There are English-language movies, comics, and children's magazines readily available. Although he has had no formal instruction in how to read or speak English, he does have some notion*

> *of the usefulness of English and it may be assumed that he has a greater motivation to become functionally bilingual than has his English-speaking counterpart living in some other Ontario town or city where French is rarely, if ever, seen or heard. The very factors which facilitate the acquisition of English as a second language by French-speaking children in Welland at the same time increase the difficulty of preserving and cultivating their mother tongue: English language and culture are ever-present and all-pervasive.*[16]

In an effort to determine how successful this bilingual education for French-speaking children is, Giroux and Ellis, with the assistance of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, have measured reading achievement of grade 6 pupils in both French and English.[17]

> *In both speed and comprehension the reading achievement [in French] of the average grade 6 pupil in Welland is similar to that of the average grade 6 pupil in an urban area of the [French-speaking] province of Quebec....It was found that the average French-Canadian grade 6 pupil in Welland reads English with the speed and comprehension of an English-speaking Ontario child who is about eighteen months younger. After only three years of studying English as a school subject, the Welland pupils obtained a median score of 19, which is equivalent to a grade level of 4.7.*[18]

In commenting on the possible relationship between French and English reading achievement, Giroux and Ellis conclude

> *that there is a tendency for pupils who earn high scores in the reading of French to also earn high scores in the reading of English and for pupils who earn low scores in the reading of French to also earn low scores in the reading of English. There is certainly no evidence that competence in reading one of the languages interferes with reading the other language.*[19]

Another significant experiment is taking place in the middle-class English-speaking community of St. Lambert, located just across the St. Lawrence River from Montreal, in the Province of Quebec. The parents of the English-speaking children of a Protestant elementary school, having read about the results of recent research in early elementary school learning, contacted several staff members of McGill University, including Dr. Wilder Penfield, former Director of the Montreal Neurological Institute, and Professor of Psychology Wallace E. Lambert, head of a group of productive researchers in bilingualism. They discussed the possibility of an experiment in their school. In 1966-1967 one first-grade class was taught exclusively in French with the attendant testing and reserach supervised by Lambert.[20] The results were so satisfactory that it was decided to continue the experimentation for three years. In 1967-1968 the pilot experimental class was followed through grade 2, which remained all-French except for fifty minutes of instruction each day by a teacher of English. At the same time different experimental and control classes were started in the first grade.[21] And in 1968-1969 the project was expanded into the third grade and replicated in grades 1 and 2.[22]

For a summary conclusion we shall let the researchers speak for themsleves:

> *The results of this experiment to date indicate that the type of bilingual training offered these children is extremely effective, even more so than was originally expected. The similarity of the findings for two different sets of firstgrade classes, involving changes in teachers, methods of instruction and modes of testing and analysis, speaks well for the stability and generality of the effects produced by the experimental program. These effects demonstrate a very high level of skill in both the receptive and productive aspects of French, the language of instruction; a generally excellent command of all aspects of English, the home language of the children; and a high level of skill in a non-language subject matter, mathematics, taught through the foreign language only. The results for the second year of the French program, during which a minimum of training was given in English, show a general improvement in French and English language achievement and in mathematics so that the second year Experimental class performs as well as, and in some cases better than, either English or French control classes in most abilities examined. Impressive as the grade II results are, however, they should be considered as tentative until they are replicated with new sets of classes in 1969. Their significance will become clearer, too, as the scope of the research is broadened to include an examination of the impact of the experimental program on the ethnic attitudes of the children and their parents, relative to the control children and their parents. It would be surprising if a program of the sort offered the children did not affect their self-conceptions, since they have become progressively more bicultural, perhaps much more so than their parents.*
>
> *Finally, it is felt that plans should be made to study the effects of the same type of experimental program on English-speaking children from somewhat lower social-class backgrounds and on children with an even broader range of intelligence scores. To be of general value to a region or nation that is serious about developing a bilingual and bicultural citizenry, the children from working class backgrounds and those of limited intellectual endowment should be given every opportunity to capitalize on a program as promising as this one now appears to be. In other words, it should not be a program for the priviledged classes only. Similarly, it is hoped that certain French Canadian schools will see the obvious advantages of such a program for their children.*

Finland. For a capsule description of the harmonious bilingual situation in Finland we resort to the *Report* of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism in Canada:[23]

In Finland, there are two main languages: Finnish and Swedish. The two languages have had many years' experience of association–for 600 years present–day Finland was part of the Kingdom of Sweden. Only in modern times, however, have they existed in a state of legal equality. Earlier, Swedish, as the language of learning, administration, the church, and commerce, had characterized the educated classes, and more particularly the civil service, the clergy, and the economic elite. From about 1840, the forces of Finnish nationalism began to gain momentum. The movement culminated in the 1919 Constitution. Both Finnish and Swedish were declared national languages of Finland, and citizens were guaranteed the right to use either language in their relations with the administrative authorities. Article 14 of the Constitution also provided that "care shall be taken that the rights [of both populations] shall be promoted by the state upon an identical basis."

This sweeping promise of equality is at first sight surprising, since the minority group who spoke Swedish accounted for only 11 percent of the population in 1919. Admittedly, they had formed 14 percent in 1880, but by 1960 this population had declined to 7 percent or 331,000 persons in a total population of 4,100,000. Yet, while the numerical strength of the Finnish-speaking citizens explains the comparative rapidity with which they established parity with those speaking Swedish, the past pre-eminence of the latter largely accounts for the present position of formal equality between the languages. Another factor is the usefulness of Swedish in increasing contacts between the Nordic countries: the status of Swedish is an affirmation of Finland's position as one of these countries.

Though it was not always so, language rarely seems to be a subject of serious discord in Finland nowadays. Given the smallness of the Swedish minority and the lack of widespread individual bilingualism (some 11 percent had a knowledge of the two languages in 1969), it is accepted on both sides that the equality spoken of by the Constitution should be implemented principally by regions. Such a territorial principle restricts an individual's right to receive services in his own language to certain defined districts. As the Swedish-speaking community is for the most part concentrated in the costal areas and in certain cities and towns rather than scattered across the country, this is not as great a restriction as it might first appear.

The commune is the unit of local government in Finland. It will be officially bilingual if it includes in its territory a linguistic minority of at least 10 percent of the population or at least 5,000 persons. If the proportion of the minority is smaller, the commune will be unilingual in the language of the majority, whether Finnish or Swedish. For administrative purposes, one or more communes may form a district; this will be unilingual if all the communes

> *making it up are of the same language. But if there are bilingual communes or communes of different languages, the administrative district will be considered bilingual. School districts, whose boundaries do not necessarily coincide with those of administrative districts, are similarly organized: for more than a given number of students who speak Finnish or Swedish, an education in their own language must be assured.*
>
> *This, in a very broad outline, is how the people of Finland have established linguistic equal partnership. By impartially subjecting minorities of both language groups to the territorial principal, on the basis of the most recently available census figures, they have met their constitutional requirement of official equality. Yet at the same time they have never lost sight of the practical limits imposed by the country's demography and history on the provision of equal service.*[24]

Union of South Africa. In his Inaugural Address at the International Seminar on Bilingualism in Education, held in Aberystwyth, Wales, in 1960, Dr. E. G. Malherbe, Principal and Vice-Chancellor of the University of Natal, refers to his country as "the most bilingual country in the world today." He adds that "it has administratively applied bilingualism in schools in a more universal and thoroughgoing way than any other country I know of."[25] We shall use Malherbe as our main source of information on the Union of South Africa.[26]

> *When the four Provinces were united into the Union of South Africa in 1910, one of the main principles laid down in the Act of Union was that: "Both the English and Afrikaans languages shall be official languages of the Union and shall be treated on a footing of equality and possess and enjoy equal freedom and rights and privileges."*
>
> *Every child in every school throughout the Union is taught both English and Afrikaans as languages, with the second language being started not later than one to two years after beginning school. The results of this official policy are reflected in the census figures, which show a steady rise in bilingualism amongst the white population of 7 years and over, during the last 40 years.*
>
> *Afrikaans is a highly streamlined form of the 17th century Dutch brought to South Africa by its first permanent settlers. It is a very flexible medium of expression in all fields, technical as well as literary. It is able to draw on modern Dutch when necessary for technical terms, and uses it as supporting literature in the higher classes. In its short span of life as a language it has developed a literature in poetry and prose, the best of which compares favourably with that of older literatures. It has proved a very successful medium of instruction over the whole educational range from the kindergarten to the university. Its spelling is phonetic and can for that reason alone be learnt*

far more easily at school than English.

At present roughly 60 percent of the three million white population speak mostly Afrikaans at home, *and 40 percent English.*

In 1918 (i.e., 42 years ago) the percentage who could speak both English and Afrikaans was 42 percent. In 1921 it has risen to 51 percent; in 1926 to 58 percent; in 1936 to 64 percent; in 1946 to 69 percent; in 1951 to 73 percent. If one takes the age group of 10-64 years, the percentage is 78 percent bilingual. This was in 1951. (Today I am sure it must be over 80 percent.) The number who spoke Afrikaans only was 8 percent and English only was 14 percent....

Commenting on the organization of schools, Malherbe distinguishes between language as a subject and language as a medium:

(A) *Language as a subject:*

Though the regulations differ somewhat in the four Provinces, it can be assumed that all white and coloured children in South African schools are taught both official languages, English and Afrikaans, *as subjects.* All indigenous African pupils are taught their vernacular language as well as at least one of the official European languages. For the moment I shall limit my observations to schools for white pupils.

This is the general position in a nutshell as far as the legislative requirements are concerned.

Obviously the child begins to learn his first language as a subject right from the start. But as to *when and how* a beginning should be made with the study of the second language as a subject, this becomes a question of *educational method.*

According to the best educational theory in South Africa today, both official languages should be taught to all pupils *as subjects* right from the beginning. *But with the following important provisos*:

(i) The child must hear the second language first, then learn to speak it, then to read and write it.

(ii) The young child must under no circumstances learn to *read* or *write* the second language until it can do so in the first language. This is a necessary proviso, particularly where the one language is phonetic (e.g., Afrikaans) and the other (English) is not phonetic in its spelling.

(iii) It does not matter much how early in school life the child starts with the second language, provided that it follows the mode of acquisition of the first language in learning it. This is best achieved in free association with other children who speak the second language. And, failing the presence of such children, the second language should be introduced *conversationally* through games and other interesting experiences of intrinsically educational value to the child, e.g., simple stories from the field of history, geography, nature study, etc.

Used in this way, the language lesson (whether in the first or the second language) becomes ancillary to the other subjects, instead of being something sterile by itself....

(A) *Language as a medium:*

In South Africa the child must be taught at least up to the end of the primary school through the medium of the home language, i.e., the language which the child understands best. This is determined by the school inspector. Only in the Province of Natal does the parent have a choice in the matter.

The second language may be introduced as an additional medium beyond the primary stage. In Natal this may be done earlier.

The home (or family) language medium principle is more strongly entrenched in the educational enactments in South Africa than in any other bilingual country.

As an educational principle, the use of the child's home language as a medium of instruction, especially in the early stages, is sound. Education, to be effective, must utilise the child's own environment and experience as a foundation on which to build.

Malherbe then describes the various types of schools:

(1) *The unilingual or single-medium school:*

Here children with Afrikaans and English home languages respectively are segregated into separate schools, even though they live in the same community or town. Thus only one medium of instruction is used throughout the school, except when teaching the second language as a subject. The majority of schools in the larger towns and cities are of this type. This type of school organisation has led to the artificially "kraaling off" [separation] of children into two distinct and sometimes socially hostile groups, even where they come from homes and communities where both English and Afrikaans are currently spoken. This not only deprives children while at school of the benefit of associating on the playground with children of the other language group–thus diminishing the opportunities of hearing and using the second language–but has also had important social and political consequences. By accentuating language differences it has caused a set-back to the process of developing a corporate national feeling of South Africanism amongst the younger generation.

In general there are four different principles according to which the media of instruction are determined in bilingual (or trilingual) countries:

(a) the home;
(b) the religious allegiance;
(c) local geographical area;
(d) the political unit (the State).

A logical consequence of the separate-medium type of school organisation has been in fact that we have now four English-medium universities and four Afrikaans-medium universities....

(2) *Parallel classes:*

Here Afrikaans and English home language children go to the same school, but are taught in separate classes. The only time they will hear the second language spoken is in the language lesson and on the playground.

(3) *Dual medium:*

This takes several forms in practice (a) where some subjects are taught through Afrikaans and others through English medium to the same classes: (b) where both media are used alternatively: (i) in the same lesson, by repeating completely or partially in the one language what has been said in the other language, (ii) on successive days of the week. The situation in (b) is feasible only when the teacher is fully bilingual....

(4) *A combination of the parallel class and dual-medium system,* the former being more common in the lower classes and the latter more common in the upper classes.

Types (2), (3) and (4) are usually grouped together under the generic term *Bilingual School* to distinguish them from the single-medium school.

In 1938 I made a study of over 18,000 pupils in over 200 representative primary and secondary schools in South Africa to ascertain *inter alia* the effect which these various types of school organisation had on (a) their progress in their first and second languages respectively, and (b) their content subjects by using either or both first and second languages as a medium of instruction. (The results have been published in "The Bilingual School"–Longmans, 1946.)

In short it may be stated that where English and Afrikaans children attended the same school, either with the method of parallel classes or of dual medium, (a) they gained in proficiency in their second language over those in separate single-medium schools, while their first language was unimpaired; (b) by the time they reached Standard VI (i.e. the end of the primary school), they were in no way behind in their content subjects as a result of their second language being used as medium of instruction.

Bilingual or Plurilingual Countries Having One Official Language.

We have selected about a dozen countries in this category with the thought that they will suggest something of the diverse conditions–linguistic, cultural, political, etc.–which affect education. Not discovering any better procedure, we shall take them up in alphabetical order.

Ceylon. Ceylon, an independent nation within the British Commonwealth since 1948, has unresolved language and educational problems. The majority of the population are Sinhalese (about 6,000,000) and the largest of the minority groups are the Tamils (about 2,000,000). All others–Moors, Burghers, Malays, etc.–comprise less than 1,000,000. In 1961, after much discussion, Sinhalese was made the single official language of the country. As a result, the minority groups, especially the Tamils, feel that their best interests are not adequately protected, and there are frequent language disputes.[27]

China. In China, despite the presence of sometimes mutually incomprehensible languages or dialects, what may comprehensively be called Chinese is spoken by ninety-five percent of the population and ninety-five percent of all speakers of Chinese–some of whom are to be found in almost any part of the world, from Singapore to New York–live in China. The national language of China is Mandarin (or Kuo-yu), which is also one of the five official languages of the UN.[28]

There are eight subgroups of non-Chinese languages spoken by the ethnic minorities in China including Taiwan. Many of these languages never had any fully developed scripts until, interestingly, the advent of the People's Republic of China, whose policy approximated that of the USSR with regard to minority languages. The general thrust generated by Peking was to help the minority people either to perfect or to create written forms for their languages. The theory was that these people must first be helped to become literate in their own way to facilitate their education, and then along with improved education would come the incentive to join in the mainstream of Chinese society, to the extent of wanting to learn the national Chinese language in addition to their own. For example, in 1955, a script was developed for the Chuang Minority Nationals in Kwangsi Province, Southeast China, using the Latin alphabet as the basis.[29]

Within the subgroup of minority languages in Taiwan, nine different forms of speech have been identified, with a total of about 160,000 speakers.[30] The government of the Republic of China in Taiwan so far has encouraged only academic interest in studying these languages; there has been little activity to promote their use. (Kai-yu Hsu)

Faroe Islands. These Islands in the North Atlantic comprise a county of Denmark. The local language, Faroese, is one of six distinct written languages of Scandinavia. The written form of Faroese was developed about 1846 by V. U. Hammershaimb, and in 1912 the use of Faroese in schools and churches was to some extent authorized. Since 1938, teachers are free to use Faroese as the single language of instruction, reversing the trend of the preceding period.

Greenland. Greenland, which until 1953 was a Danish colony and which since that time has become an integral part of the realm, has a Danish-Greenlandish bilingual program in its elementary schools. Instruction in Greenlandish, the mother tongue of the Eskimos, is emphasized at the beginning and then Danish is added to the curriculum. It is generally considered that the Eskimos of Greenland receive a more suitable education than they do in Alaska or Northern Canada. However, the Danes are not satisfied and continue to study the problem.

India. India represents what is perhaps the most complex multilingual situation in the world. In the Census of 1961 "every individual was asked to give his mother tongue. A total of 1,652 different names of mother tongues were returned, of which 1,022 could firmly be classed as Indian languages."[31] Even though this multiplicity of tongues may be reduced to "twleve major languages of Indo-European or Dravidian origin,"[32] the problem of education is complicated. Addressing a Conference of Provincial Ministers of Education in 1949, Minister of Education Manlana Azad stated: "India is a vast country with many languages. We must accept unreservedly that all these languages are Indian languages and deserve equal treatment....What objection can there be if a minority in a particular province speak or learn in a language other than that of the majority....Even if our aim is unity, it cannot be achieved by compulsion or imposition....We should approach this problem with large-hearted generosity and try to meet the wishes of the minorities in a manner which will leave no ground for dissatisfaction or complaint."[33] This expresses an irreproachable sentiment, and to this day nearly all minority languages are used as mediums of instruction, at least in the lower forms of the schools. The trouble comes when national unity is sought, for Hindi, the national language, is spoken by only one-third of the population. As a medium for higher education it competes poorly with English, which also serves as the best medium of communication among well-educated Indians and as a link language with the world outside. After more than a decade of controversy a tolerable formula has been worked out. Recognizing the tendency of regional languages to become the mediums of university education, the Central Advisory Board proposed in 1962 "that any university adopting a regional language should continue to provide facilities for instruction in English and Hindi....The National Integration Council, while conceding that regional languages should become the media of university education, warmed to the theme of Hindi as the eventual, and English as the transitional link between universities....The link language formula satisfied everyone because it left open the question of timing."[34] This is the language policy today, reflected in a speech by Mrs. Ghandi on August 15 (the Indian national holiday), 1967, in which she said, "In the present-day world, we cannot afford to live in isolation. Therefore there should be three languages, regional, national, and international."[35]

Mexico, Guatemala, Peru,[36] *and Ecuador.* Monolingual Indian populations in these countries have been for many years a serious problem for any educational program. Increasingly in the past two decades, the governments of these countries have sponsored programs in which the Indian languages are used as mediums of instruction in the early grades of special schools, while at the same time the children are introduced to Spanish as their second and national language. The Summer Institute of Linguistics, whose teams of linguists are engaged in research in these languages, has assisted in such programs by cooperating in the development of writing systems, in the preparation of basic primers and readers, and in the vernacular side of teacher training. (Sarah Gudschinsky)

Paraguay. "In Paraguay, two languages, Spanish and Guaraní, have co-existed for the past three hundred years in relative equilibrium. A high percentage (52%) of the community is said to be bilingual and almost the entire community (92%) can speak the aboriginal language, Guaraní."[37] Rubin points out that "Paraguayans are unique in Latin America in the importance they give their aboriginal language, Guaraní. In all other...countries the Indian language is relegated to a secondary position–it is the language of the lower class or of the still extant aboriginal groups."[38]In Paraguay Guaraní is the language of intimacy, of love, of poetry, and of jokes.[39] The explanation for this unique situation is to be found in the close interaction between the Spanish conquerors and the Guaraníes from the very beginning. The latter were willing to collaborate with the Spaniards for their mutual protection, and a high percentage of Spanish-Guaraní households were established.[40] The children learned Guaraní from their mothers and from the servants, and Guaraní became quickly the language of the home. There is a high degree of loyalty to Guaraní, which is considered to be the national language *par excellence*, though Spanish is the official language and is also highly respected.[41] The fact that the two languages are used for different roles makes for the great stability of both.

Philippines. One of the earliest pieces of serious research on the effects of beginning education in the child's mother tongue was done in the Philippines in the late forties. The

Iloilo experiment demonstrated the superiority of this form of instruction.[42] Current experimentation in the use of two languages in the primary grades is being carried out under the sponsorship of the Language Study Center of the Philippine Normal College, Bonifacio P. Sibayan, Director.[43] In general the first two years of schooling are conducted in the child's home language, and the rest of the elementary school in Tagalog (Filipino, Pilipino), the official language, with English studied as a subject.

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). The European nation with the greatest variety of experiences in bilingual schooling is presumably the USSR. The Soviets were from the beginning committed to allow the ethnic minority groups considerable freedom in their educational planning. With some 200 distinct languages, spoken by about forty-five percent of the population, the USSR became the scene of extensive language-development. The principal languages were standardized, writing systems were developed for unwritten languages, and well over sixty languages began to be used in primary schools and in some instances past this level.[44]

In the 1930's a new policy was initiated, which emphasized the role of Russian in the Soviet communication network and limited the use of the minority tongues. The more important minority languages, however, continued to be used as mediums of instruction in primary and to a lesser extent in secondary schools.[45] It is reported that some 700 schools make some use of foreign languages like English, French, German, and Chinese as languages of instruction in various subjects.[46] Mackey adds that there are more than twenty Pedagogical Institutes for Foreign Language Teaching and at least four times this number of Special Language Schools in which, from the first grade, a foreign language is used almost exclusively as modern history and economic geography of the foreign country are taught in the foreign language.[47]

United Kingdom. As E. Glyn Lewis remarks in his chapter on "Bilingualism–Some Aspects of its History," there has been in Britain "a long, almost unbroken, tradition of bilingualism of one form or another over large areas of the country. Latin, of course, was a living language in these islands as it was on the continent....Latin was spoken by members of all classes of the Celtic population....It is probable that the Romanised Britons were bilingual exactly as the well-to-do-classes in Norman England a thousand years later."[48] Lewis continues: "In the 13th century French was spoken practically everywhere, certainly everywhere that mattered. It was the language of the court, and of society; it was the language of administration, of parliament, of the law courts, the church and monasteries. It was the language of schools, which forbade the speaking of English, much as Welsh was forbidden in Wales in the 19th century."[49]

In our day, the Celtic minority languages, having long since retreated to the edges of Great Britain, are struggling manfully to maintain themselves. Welsh-English bilingualism is still active in parts of Wales.[50]

The Constitution of Ireland lays down in the famous Article 8 that "1) the Irish language as the national language is the first official language. 2) The English language is recognised as a second official language. 3) Provision may, however, be made by law for the exclusive use of either of the said languages for any one of more official purposes, either throughout the State or in any part thereof."[51] Proponents of Irish-English bilingualism see it as the only way of maintaining the Irish language and culture. Others, while sympathetic to the desirability of maintaining the ancestral heritage, point out that Irish speakers account for only three percent of the population, according to the 1961 Census. Recent surveys show that "about 83 percent of the population did not believe that Irish could be restored as the most widely spoken language..."[52] Apparently the motivational factor is lacking. Even those who are sympathetic to the maintenance of Irish have little reason for optimism.

In Scotland Gaelic plays a feeble role in the schools.[53]

Summary

This cursory sampling of a dozen bilingual or plurilingual communities is intended to be more than suggestive. An American educator will perhaps detect among these foreign settings an occasional feature that matches the situation in his own bilingual community. He will probably have more questions than answers. Is bilingualism a good thing for a community or a nation? Should it be confined to the home and to use among intimate friends? Or should it be supported through instruction in the schools? How do languages relate to social roles? What are appropriate roles for the home language, for a second language, and for foreign languages? Are there essential differences between local languages and languages of wider communication? What makes some languages prestigious and others not? What determines community attitude toward a given language, toward bilingualism, toward bilingual schooling? How should majority and minority language groups interact? Does the power advantage of the majority or dominant group imply special responsibility toward the minority groups? How much do language problems and intergroup tensions result from ignorance—of the nature of language; the process of language learning; the inter-relationship of language, culture, and society, etc.? In the chapters that follow we cannot presume to give definitive answers to all of these questions, but we hope that the information we have gathered will be suggestive of some lines of thought.

NOTES

[1] The reader will find it useful to refer to the varied matter contained in the appendices. Especially relevant to this chapter are Appendix C, Demographic Data; Appendix J, From Egypt to America: A Multilingual's Story; and Appendices K through U, which contain basic information on a dozen different American ethnic groups.

We also call attention at the very outset to a basic book, Joshua A. Fishman's *Language Loyalty in the United States*, which should be within reach of every educator interested in bilingual schooling.

[2] In a personal communication to us, from which we quote and paraphrase.

[3] See Frances H. Ellis (1954) for a detailed account of the Indianapolis program between 1869 and 1919.

[4] Kloss (1942), pp. 615-682; Kloss (1963), pp. 95-109.

[5] Dr. Kloss has communicated to us a one-page tabulation, published under the title "Die Deutschamerikanische Schule" in *Jahrbach für Amerikastudien*, Vol. VII (1962), pp. 159-160, and which we reproduce herewith. Kloss writes:

In 1962, I published the following tabulation, giving data from 1900 (the figures were taken from Viereck, but the capital letters A, B. C have been added by me):

I. Enrollments in Programs with Highly Developed German Studies in Elementary Schools

Place	Private	Public[1]	Total	% of All Pupils
New Braunfels, Tex.	120	240 A	360	100
Tell City, Ind.	120	500 C	620	96
Belleville, Ill.	960	2,026 A	2,986	71
New Ulm, Minn.	330	575 A	905	90
Carlstadt, N.J.	122	486 C	608	95
Erie, Penn.	1,985	4,830 B	6,815	66
Milwaukee, Wisc.	10,525	21,190 B	31,715	62
Cincinnati, Ohio	10,700	17,287 A	27,987	50
Cleveland, Ohio	8,041	17,643 A	25,684	40
Evansville, Ind.	1,365	2,480 C	3,845	36
Hamilton, Ohio	450	1,017 C	1,467	32
Columbus, Ohio	1,580	3,980 A	5,560	22
Dayton, Ohio	1,320	2,203 A	3,523	25
Saginaw, Mich	250	1,130 A	1,380	33
Baltimore, Md.	7,250	8,450 A	15,700	16
Indianapolis, Ind.	1,861	4,537 A	6,398	18

II. Enrollment in Programs with Less Highly Developed German Studies in Elementary Schools

Place	Private	Public[1]	Total	% of All Pupils
New York, N.Y.	18,240	60,000 B	78,240	25
Buffalo, N.Y.	5,030	7,030 B	12,060	17
Hoboken, N.Y.	870	980 C	1,850	20
Sheboygan, Wisc.	1,870	744 C	2,614	55
Davenport, Iowa	430	3,400 C	3,830	56
Chicago, Ill.	25,340	31,768 B	57,108	19
Denver, Colo.	530	2,861 C	3,391	15
Lancaster, Pa.	980	580 A	1,560	25
Akron, Ohio	750	75 C	825	11
Toledo, Ohio	1,868	1,932 C	3,800	18
La Crosse, Wisc.	893	560 C	1,453	25
Houston, Tex.	350	816 C	1,166	20

[1] A=dual medium schools
B=German mere branch of study
C=precise status of German unknown

III. Secondary School Enrollment in Cities Where Public Elementary Schools Teach No German

Place	Private	Public[1]	Total	% of All Pupils
St. Louis, Mo.	16,850	148 B	16,998	17
Detroit, Mich.	7,180	250 B	7,430	15
Newark, N.J.	5,180	500 B	5,680	14
Louisville, Ky.	4,530	150 B	4,680	14
St. Paul, Minn.	2,180	443 B	2,623	9
Brooklyn, N.Y.	7,150	960 B	8,110	5
Allegheny, Pa.	2,560	150 B	2,710	11
Peoria, Ill.	1,020	150 B	1,170	12
Dubuque, Iowa	1,850	175 B	2,025	30
Rochester, N.Y.	2,180	448 B	2,628	9
Pittsburgh, Pa.	7,128	160 B	7,288	13

[1] A=dual medium schools
B=German mere branch of study
C=precise status of German unknown

[6] For a description of this and one other Spanish program in the Dade County Schools see Gaarder and Richardson (1968) and Bell (1969).

[7] Richardson (1968).

[8] See Texas Education Agency (1967).

[9] Ibid.

[10] Ibid. See also Appendix V, Bilingual Programs in the United States.

[11] For a brief report on Switzerland as a plurilingual state see Canada (1967), pp. 79-80. See also Welsh (1966).

[12] Ibid., pp. 77-79.

[13] See Canada (1965), p. 95. This table names the following languages or language groups, with numbers and percentages:

Language (groups)	Number of Speakers	Percentage of Population
German	563,713	3.09
Ukrainian	361,496	1.98
Italian	339,626	1.86
Dutch	170,177	0.93
Indian and Eskimo	166,531	0.91
Polish	161,720	0.88
Scandinavian	116,714	0.63
Jewish (Yiddish and Hebrew?)	82,442	0.45
Others, not stated	492,137	2.69
TOTAL	2,454,562	13.45

[14] Giroux and Ellis (1968), p. 2. Our description is based on this study, supplemented by a personal visit.

[15] Ibid.

[16] P. 3.

[17] The procedure is described on pp. 5ff.

[18] P. 6.

[19] P. 7.

[20] For a detailed report see Lambert and Macnamara (1969).

[21] Gratifying results are reported by Lambert, Just, and Segalowitz (1969).

[22] The authors had an opportunity to visit this school in April 1969 and were most favorably impressed by the interest expressed by several parents and the principal, by the skill and dedication of the teachers, by the performance of the children, and by the effective research collaboration of Lambert and his team.

[23] Canada (1967), pp. 75ff.

[24] For a much more detailed treatment of the Finnish situation the reader is referred to T. Miljan, *Bilingualism in Finland*, a research report submitted to the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism. See p. 211 of Book I, *General Introduction: The Official Languages*. Miljan reports, for example, that the normal pattern for a Finnish school child is to receive his education through his mother tongue and to study the second official language as a subject starting in grade 5. See also Wuorinen (1931).

[25] United Kingdom (1965), pp. 8ff.

[26] For another succinct description see Canada (1967), pp. 80-82. See also Aucamp (1926), and Malherbe (1946).

[27] See Macrae (1939).

[28] See also Appendix R, Chinese, by Kai-yu Hsu.

[29] American Consulate General in Hong Kong, "Survey of Mainland Press," No. 1068 (June 14, 1955), p. 1.

[30] Chung Lu-Sheng, *The Phonology of the National Language*, Taipei, 1966, pp. 10-12.

[31] Julian Dakin, et al. (1968), pp. 12-13. Our brief account is based on this chapter.

[32] Ibid., p. 16. Kloss states that there are fourteen (not twelve) official languages (including Sanscrit). See his "Problèmes linguistiques des Indes et de leurs minorités," in *Revue de Psychologie des Peuples*, Vol. XXL (1966), pp. 310-348.

[33] Ibid., p. 36.

[34] Ibid., p. 53.

[35] Ibid., p. 61.

[36] Burns (1968).

[37] Joan Rubin (1968), p. 14.

[38] Ibid., p. 21.

[39] Ibid., p. 16.

[40] Ibid., p. 23.

[41] Ibid., p. 21.

[42] Pedro T. Orata, "The Iloilo Experiment in Education Through the Vernacular," UNESCO, *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education*, Paris, 1953, Monograph 8 on Fundamental Education, pp. 123-131

[43] Prator (1956).
Bonifacio P. Sibayan, "Some Problems of Bilingual Education in the Philippines. *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XLV (1966).

---- "Language Planning in the Philippines." Paper read at the Thomas Jefferson Cultural Center. Mimeographed, 10 p. See also Sibayan (1968).

---- "Pilipino, English and the Vernaculars in Philippine Life," *The Catholic Teacher*, Vol. XIV (January 1969), pp. 1-12.

---- "Planned Multilingualism in the Philippines, In Thomas A. Sebeok, ed., *Current Trends in Linguistics*: Vol. VIII, *Linguistics in Oceania*, The Hague: Mouton & Co. (in press).

---- G. Richard Tucker, "An Assessment of Bilingual Education in Philippine Context." See interim report attached to correspondence with Work Page No. 1, Philippine Normal College Bilingual Experiment, 1968-1969.

[44] Eric Goldhagen (1968). See especially Jacob Ornstein's chapter entitled "Soviet Language Policy: Continuity and Change." See also Kreusler (1961).

[45] Ibid.

[46] H. H. Stern (1969), p. 82.

[47] Source: Xronika, *Inostrannije Jazyki v Skole*, 1960-1968.

[48] United Kingdom National Commission for UNESCO, *Bilingualism in Education*, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1965, p. 71.

[49] Ibid., pp. 72-73.

[50] Ministry of Education, "The Place of Welsh and English in the Schools of Wales," London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1953. See also Jones (1966).

[51] See the chapter by Colmán L. O'Huallacháin, O. F. M., "Some Development in the Irish Republic: Language Teaching in Ireland," in Peter Strevens, ed., *Modern Languages in Great Britain and Ireland*, Strasbourg: AIDELA, 1967.

[52] Macnamara (1969), p. 17. See also Macnamara (1966).

[53] Scottish Council for Educational Research, *Gaelic-Speaking Children in Highland Schools*, London 1961.

1. This first grader enters a foreign world

2. ...and begins to feel at home
3. A male teacher can enhance education
4. St. Sergius High School, New York City
   Russian-English bilingual education

5. Bilingual education reaches across races and cultures at Washington International School,
6. ...United Consolidated School, Laredo, Texas
7. ...The Bilingual School, P.S. 25, New York City
8. A ready answer in a familiar tongue

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9. Garfield Elementary School Library, Del Rio, Texas, where half the books in Spanish is the aim.
10. Developing self-concept, the value of the individual (Southwest Educational Development Laboratory program: San Antonio, McAllen, etc.
11. Bilingual education is for native English-speaking children
12. ...and for newly arrived students from Mexico (Calexico Union High School, Calexico, Calif.)
13. It is implemented by cooperative planning
14. ....language labs
15. ...dramatization (Lowell Elementary School, San Diego, Calif.)

11

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16. Rough Rock Demonstration School, Chinle, Arizona where Navajo children embrace two cultures
17. Interest leads to learning
18. And learning has room for dreams

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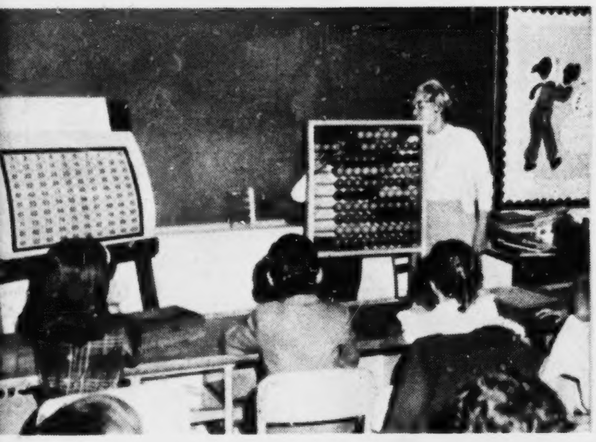
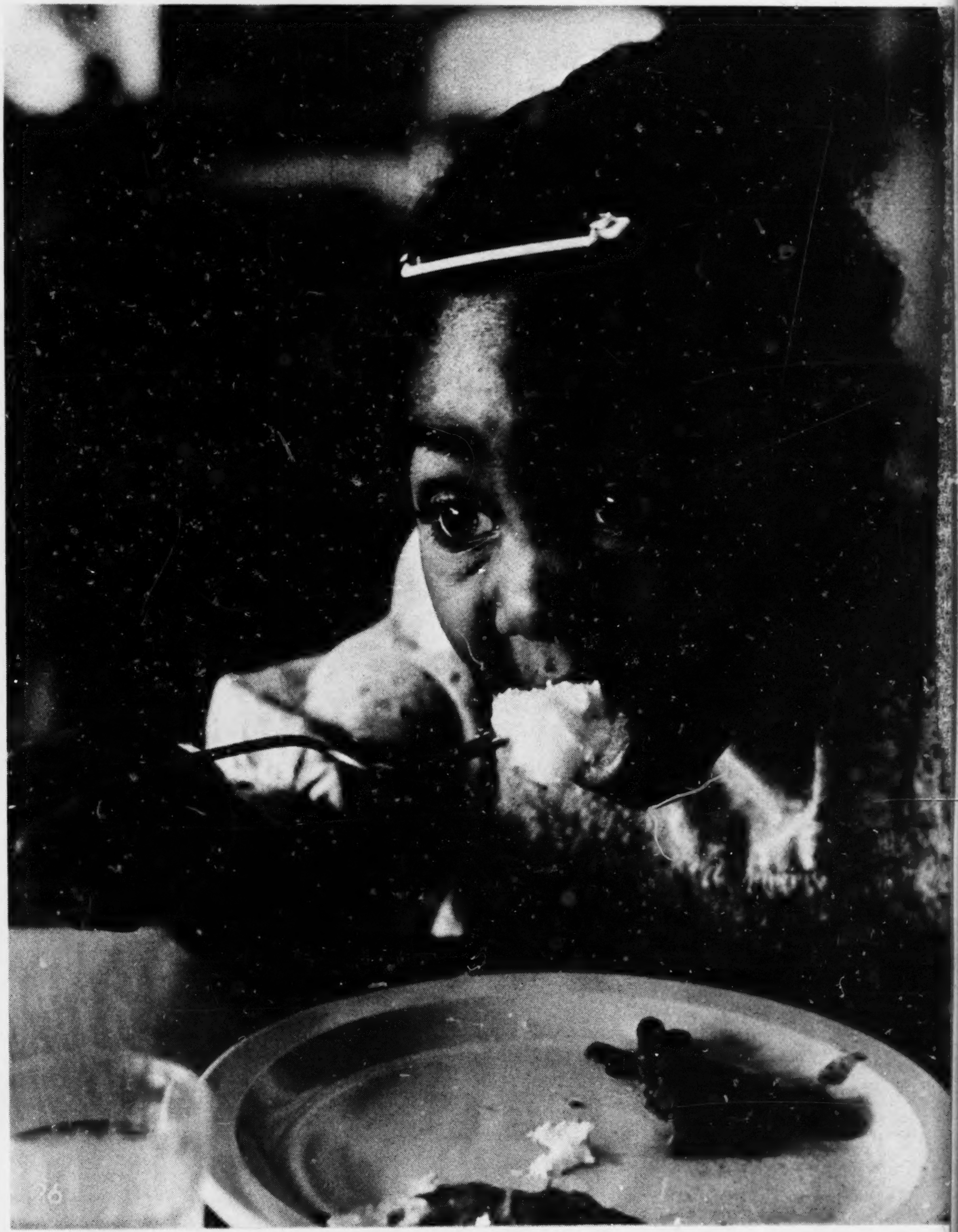
19. The bilingual teacher
20. Introducing bilingual education to the public via television
21. ...to a child through verbal play
22. Videotape helps the teacher learn
23. Common interests cross the barrier
24. A student tutor helps a child (Elbert Covell College, University o Pacific, Stockton, Calif.)

25. Two approaches to mathematics
26. But only one to a good hot meal
27. "How will they treat my children?"
28. At Mesilla Elementary School, Las Cruces, New Mexico, parent involvement helps provide an answer

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CHAPTER IV

A RATIONALE FOR BILINGUAL SCHOOLING

Current thinking about bilingual schooling is far from uniform, and the wise administrator and school board will seek information representing more than one point of view. Here are the basic questions that are being raised:

Is bilingualism desirable or undesirable? For the nation? For the individual child? If desirable, is it worth the trouble and expense?

Is Bilingualism Desirable or Undesirable for the Nation? This fundamental question comes down eventually to a value judgment, which cannot be pronounced either correct or incorrect except in terms of the particular time and circumstance of a specific nation. William A. Stewart describes two different policies:

1. *The eventual elimination, by education and decree, of all but one language, which remains to serve for both official and general purposes.*

2. *The recognition and preservation of important languages within the national scene, supplemented by universal use of one or more languages to serve for official purposes and for communication across language boundaries.*[1]

For the United States of America in this latter half of the twentieth century the question of desirability for the nation seems almost rhetorical. America's relations, official and unofficial, with almost every country in the world, involving diplomacy, trade, security, technical assistance, health, education, religion, and the arts, are steadily increasing. The success of these international relations often depends on the bilingual skills and cultural sensitiveness of American representatives both here and abroad.[2] In our country, as in every important nation, educated bilingualism is an accepted mark of the elite, a key which opens doors of opportunity far and wide. It seems clear to us that bilingualism is highly desirable for the nation.

Is Bilingualism Desirable or Undesirable for the Individual Child? If the individual child belongs to a high socioeconomic class, the answer is obvious. As in other countries, the elite considers knowledge of other languages essential for participation in international affairs. To argue that children of lower socioeconomic classes will never need to use other languages is in effect to deprive them of the opportunity to become eligible for such participation. In the case of American children who are born into a non-English language, not to give them the education needed to perfect their first language to the point of usefulness amounts to a virtual betrayal of the children's potential. As Bruce Gaarder has said,[3]

> *The most obvious anomaly–or asburdity–of our educational policy regarding foreign language learning is the fact that we spend perhaps a billion*

> *dollars a year to teach languages–in the schools, the colleges and universities, the Foreign Service Institute, the Department of Defense, AID, USIA, CIA, etc. (and to a large extent to adults who are too old ever to master a new tongue)–yet virtually no part of the effort goes to maintain and to develop the competence of American children who speak the same languages natively. There are over four million native speakers of French or Spanish in our country and these two languages are the two most widely taught, yet they are the ones for which our Government recognizes the greatest unfilled need (at the levels, for example, of the Foreign Service of the Department of State and the program of lectures and technical specialists sent abroad under the Fulbright-Hays Act).*

In the succeeding pages we shall speak of other advantages of bilingualism to the American child, of whatever social class; but the views already suggested leave us with but one conclusion: For the individual child, as for the nation, bilingualism is clearly desirable.

Is Bilingual Schooling Worth the Trouble and Expense? This is a question that each community must decide for itself, just as it must decide about other features of the education it wants for its children. Every school district, we suppose, wants *all* of its children to have *some* education, usually represented by the three R's, plus some acquaintance with the other subjects regularly included in the elementary school curriculum. Some children are considered to be entitled to more education than others. These are recognized by their ability to learn everything the school offers–and more. In their cases, the curriculum may be enriched by additional subjects–e.g., another language–or by greater depth in some of the common learnings.

In the average school setting languages other than English have usually been thought of as foreign, even though they may be the native languages of some of the school's children. Foreign languages have been on the periphery of American public education, generally not to be approached except as an extra or in high school, where they are not so much *learned* by the average student as *studied* for two years. Only the privileged child has an opportunity really to learn another language, either in the exceptional FLES (foreign language in the elementary school) program which enjoys the support of its community or from a "foreign" servant or playmates or from prolonged residence abroad. Many lower or middle-income communities think of other languages in the elementary grades as a frill which, with the rising cost of education, cannot be afforded.

If bilingual schooling is thought of merely as a form of foreign-language education, it already has one strike against it. In the following pages we shall hope to make it plain that though bilingual schooling does involve the learning of two languages, neither is foreign. The non-English-speaking child's home language is his native language, his mother tongue; and English is his second language, to be learned in a special way. As we hope to demonstrate, bilingual schooling is not exclusively either the learning of a "foreign" language or the learning of English–though both of these are involved–; it is rather a new way of conceiving of the whole range of education, especially for the non-English-speaking child who is just entering school. It necessitates rethinking the entire curriculum in terms of the child's best instruments for learning, of his readiness and motivation for learning the various subjects, and of his own identity and potential for growth and development.

It is clear that restructuring the whole educational process will involve both trouble and expense. The authors of this study cannot possibly decide for anyone whether the results promised by proposed educational changes will be worth while. Only after considering such evidence as we hope to adduce in the course of this study can a school district reasonably be expected to make a thoughtful and responsible decision. We make no secret of the fact that our study has led us to believe that certain basic changes in the policy and practice of education for our "bilingual" children *can* bring about significant improvements, not only for the children themselves but for our communities and our country as well.

Rationale

Need for Change. It is perhaps healthy to begin by acknowledging the potent need for change and improvement in the education of our non-English-speaking children. Throughout the length of our educational history we have been aware of this need. The Bureau of Indian Affairs in the Department of the Interior, the United States Office of Education, the State department of education in bilingual areas, and local school districts have all shown their concern by conducting studies and experiments on behalf of non-English-speaking children. We shall cite a single example from the abundant literature: "A Resolution Concerning the Education of Bilingual Children, El Paso, Texas, January 1966,"[4] This document, based on a Texas Education Agency report and on a study by sociologists Browning and McLemore of the University of Texas at Austin, points out such sobering facts as the following:

"The per capita median income of 'Anglos' in Texas in 1959 was $4,137, that of Spanish-surname Texans $2,019."

In 1955-1956 "the average Spanish-surname Texan was–spending three years in the first grade and was dropping out of school before reaching the fifth grade (4.7). This compares with 10.8 school years completed by 'all whites' (which includes Spanish-surname Texans) and 8.1 by 'non-whites' (primarily Negroes and Orientals)."

The Resolution passed by the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers constitutes a capsule rationale for the bilingual education of all the poor of America whose English is non-functional. The reader is invited to see this short document at this point.

The Need for Identity. The non-English-speaking child who has typically lived the critical first five or six years of his life in a language and a culture different from those he encounters as he enters school inevitably suffers a culture shock. To be sure, most administrators and teachers try their best–in English–to make such a child feel comfortable and welcome. However, to the extent that English is the only medium of communication and the child's language is banned from the classroom and playground, he inevitably feels himself to be a stranger. Only as he succeeds in suppressing his language and natural way of behaving, and in assuming a new and unaccustomed role, does he feel the full warmth of approval. In subtle or not so subtle ways he is made to think that his language is inferior to English, that he is inferior to the English-speaking children in school, and that his parents are inferior to English-speakers in the community.

His parents find themselves in a similar equivocal situation. Pride in their heritage and a natural sense of dignity make them want to maintain the ancestral language in the home. At the same time, many parents want to do all they can to help their children adjust to school and so they talk English as best they can in the home rather than their native language. Sometimes what results is a mixture of the two, with an inadequate hold on either. The fault here lies less with the parents than with the teacher and schools that misguide them.

The Best Medium for Learning. The school, as the agency whose task it is to organize the best possible education for all children, has an unusual opportunity today "to develop forward-looking approaches" through bilingual schooling. This can be done only if administrators and teachers understand clearly the basic principles involved. In addition to those already mentioned, educators have in recent years come to agree that the best medium, especially for the initial stages of a child's learning, is his dominant language. This was stated categorically by a group of international educators who met in Paris in 1951 to prepare a monograph of fundamental education. In their book, entitled *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education,*[5] they say "It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue."[6] Similar findings have been reported by Nancy Modiano[7] following research with three Indian groups in Chiapas.[8] The Summer Institute of Linguistics, which has extensive experience in teaching literacy to so-called primitive peoples, has adopted as regular procedure the teaching of reading and writing first in the mother tongue and then in the national language.[9] In a foreword to the 1964 Bibliography of the Summer Institute of Linguistics in Peru Augusto Tamayo Vargas, Dean of the Faculty of Letters of the University of San Marcos in Lima expressed the satisfaction felt by Peruvians in educational government circles over the results obtained. His words have been translated from Spanish by Mary Ruth Wise.

> *The Summer Institute of Linguistics...has worked in Peru almost twenty years and in those years their work has been so fruitful that the name of the Institute is linked to the work of national literacy and to the spirit of bilingual teaching. For, the members of this Institute, who initiated their work in our country in 1945, have created alphabets for each of the tribal groups of the jungle thereby extending the possibility of reading and writing to isolated tribes; and thanks to their technical ability in teaching, the concept continues to spread that the diverse groups of humanity should receive their first education in their native tongue in order later to offer them the national language, Spanish, as a second mother tongue without losing the first.*

From these reports and others that could be cited educators are agreed that a child's mother tongue is the best normal instrument for learning, especially in the early stages of school, and that reading and writing in the first language should precede literacy in a second. This principle is respected in the educational policy of such bilingual countries as Canada, Finland, Belgium, Switzerland, and the Union of South Africa.[10]

Learning Through English. There is a widespread fear among non-English-speaking ethnic groups in the United States that by beginning their schooling in the home language their children will be retarded in their learning of English. Such evidence as there is points in the opposite direction. There are many examples of young children's ability to learn two or more languages at the same time, as we shall mention later in this chapter. Preliminary research indicates that, provided one of the languages is the mother tongue, children who learn through two languages tend to learn as well or better than those who learn through only one.[11]

First, Second, and Foreign Language. The organizer of a bilingual program in the United States needs to understand clearly the difference between the children's *home* language (also called first language, mother tongue, or vernacular), their *second* language (English), and *foreign* languages. The language into which a non-English-speaking child is born is normally the language which exercises the most important and the durable influence on him; it helps to fashion his basic style of speech and personality. For such a child in the United States, English is usually the second language. The teaching of English as a second language to children whose first language is not English requires a special approach, special techniques, special materials, and special understanding. ESL (English as a second language) techniques are used widely in areas where we have concentrations of non-English-speaking persons. The limited English thus acquired is not for quite some time a sufficient medium for the non-English-speaking child's total learning, but it should be an important component of a well-planned bilingual program.

For many non-English-speaking children in the United States, English may very well initially be altogether foreign, but it has become conventional to refer to it as a second language since it is used actively and officially, even in our bilingual areas. Social scientists tend now to restrict the term "foreign language" to languages not commonly spoken in a given community. Thus, for example, a Spanish-speaking American encounters his first language at birth, may not meet his second language (English) until he begins school at age six, and studies his first foreign language perhaps as a high school subject.

The Best Order for Learning Language Skills. Another important factor in planning a sound bilingual program is the proper ordering of language skills, usually called language arts by elementary-school educators. Just as a child first learns to hear, understand, and speak his own language and then learns to read and write it, so should he learn his second language in the same way.

What has not been sufficiently understood in the past is that a Spanish-speaking child who has lived his first five or six years in a Spanish-speaking family and community is "ready" to learn to read and write *in Spanish but not in English.* A teacher who fails to take advantage of his "readiness" and to teach him how to read and write his mother tongue without delay is missing a golden opportunity.

The Factor of Age. Recent research confirms what perceptive educators have long known, that the human infant is a surprising learner. "Psychologist Benjamin Bloom estimates that about 50 percent of mature intelligence is developed by age four and another 30 percent by age eight. Some psychologists doubt whether any amount of remedial work later on will enable a child to develop intellectually to his full potential if he does not receive the proper stimulation at the proper time–that is, very young."[12]

We cite this arresting quotation, for it underlines what is coming to be accepted more and more as a truism by educational theorists, namely, that formal schooling normally begins at an age when much of the learning potential of a child has already been lost. Realizing that the early-learning movement is accelerating rapidly, New York City school officials are experimenting with two-year-olds. "The earlier we get youngsters," says one administrator, "the better chances of their doing will in school later."[13] The results of early investigation are so promising that bilingual program planners would do well to include infants and preschool children in their designs.

Early Language Learning. We are coming to realize the unsuspected capacity of infants and young children for learning in general, but their extraordinary capacity for the learning of languages, both the mother tongue and other languages, has long been common knowledge.

We cannot explain how man developed language, thus setting himself apart from the other animals, and we never cease to wonder at the infant's skill in mastering his mother tongue. Less well known is the fact that the vocal noises which the infant enjoys producing far transcend the limits of the community language. After making a number of sample recordings of the vocalizations of a single infant in the first year of life, Charles Osgood observes that "within the data for the first two months of life may be found all of the speech sounds that the human vocal system can produce."[14] This fact has enormous implications for the proponents of bilingual schooling. Linguists are agreed that by the age of about five and one-half the average child has mastered most of the sound system and much of the basic structure of his language, as well as a sufficient vocabulary to participate fully in the activities of immediate concern to him.

Another indication of the child's fantastic learning power is the size of his vocabulary. Mary Katherine Smith, using the Seashore-Eckerson English Recognition Vocabulary Test, found that "for grade one, the average number of basic words known was 16,900, with a range from 5,500 to 48,800."[15] Henry D. Rinsland, using written sources supplemented by children's conversation, counted 5,099 different words used by first graders as an active vocabulary out of 353,874 running words.[16]

In learning additional languages, too, young children astonish adolescents and adults, who have so much difficulty acquiring their second language. A well-known example of children's plurilingualism in a multilingual societal setting is that cited by British psychologist J. W. Tomb: "It is common experience in the district in Bengal in which the writer resided to hear English children three or four years old who have been born in the country conversing freely at different times with their parents in English, with their *ayahs* (nurses) in Bengali, with the garden coolies in Santali, and with the house-servants in Hindustani, while their parents have learned with the aid of a *munshi* (teacher) and much laborious effort just sufficient Hindustani to comprehend what the house-servants are saying (provided they do not speak too quickly) and to issue simple orders to them connected with domestic affairs. It is even not unusual to see English parents in India unable to understand what their servants are saying to them in Hindustani and being driven in consequence to bring along an English child of four or five years old, if available, to act as interpreter."[17]

Missionary families are a particularly rich source of examples to illustrate children's language learning ability. "One American missionary family in Vietnam tells this story: When they went out to Vietnam, they were three, father, mother, and four-year-old daughter. Shortly after their arrival a son was born. The parents' work took them on extended trips to the interior of the country, at which times they left their children in the care of a Vietnamese housekeeper and a nursemaid. When the time came for the young son to talk, he did in fact talk, but in Vietnamese. Suddenly, the parents realized that they could not even communicate with their son except by using their daughter as an interpreter."[18]

According to Dr. Wilder Penfield, the distinguished former Director of the Montreal Nuerological Institute, "A child who is exposed to two or three languages during the ideal period for language learning pronounces each with the accent of his teacher. If he hears one language at home, another at school, and a third perhaps from a governess in a nursery, he is not aware that he is learning three languages at all. He is aware of the fact that to get what he wants from the governess he must speak one way and with the teacher he must speak in another way. He has not reasoned it out at all.

In his biography of the Canadian Prime Minister, Louis St. Laurent, Bruce Hutchison quotes the former Prime Minister as follows, "'I thought,' he used to say in later years, 'that everybody spoke to his father in French and his mother in English.'"[20]

From these examples, and from many others that could be found, educators may safely conclude that the learning of two languages does not constitute an undue expectation of children, especially very young children.[21]

Language and Culture. "Study of the history and culture associated with a student's mother tongue is considered an integral part of *bilingual education.*" This quotation from the Guidelines to the Bilingual Education Program emphasizes the relation of language to culture. Language is only one of the important parts of the characteristic behavior of a people bound together in one culture. It is closely connected with a particular way of feeling, thinking, and acting, and it is rooted in and reflects a commonly accepted set of values. Educators need to remember that a child born into a Spanish-speaking family in the Southwest, a Navajo child born on the reservation in Arizona, a Franco-American child born into a French-speaking family in Northern Maine, and a Chinese child born into a Cantonese-speaking family in San Francisco all enter different worlds, worlds which are organized and presented through the grid of the particular language that they hear about them and that they acquire. There is, therefore, an intimate relationship between the child, his family, his community, their language, and their view of the world. How to harmonize these with American English and with prevailing American culture patterns without damaging the self-image of a non-English-speaking child is the challenge. It is not a minor one.

Bilingualism, Biculturalism, and the Community. Bilingual education can provide one important means of building out of varied ethnic elements a harmonious and creative community. It is not enough for educators to understand the principles on which a solid bilingual program must be built; they must also create understanding throughout the community concerning the important connection between one's mother tongue, one's self-image, and one's heritage (both individual and group-cultural). One can hardly despise or depreciate any people's language without depreciating the people themselves. As forty-nine Scandinavian professors, assembled in 1962, so eloquently said: "L'extermination d'une langue, d'une culture et d'un peuple sont une seule et même chose."[22] (The extermination of a language, of a culture, and of a people are all one and the same thing.)

Wherever the vicious circle begins, it is the community as a whole or the nation as a whole that suffers the consequences. Both those responsible for the administration of the schools and those who exert leadership in the community must search their consciences before deciding what kind of education to provide. The non-English-speaking child who at the beginning of school is unable to acquire literacy in English in competition with his English-speaking classmates and who is not permitted to acquire it in his own language makes a poor beginning that he may never be able to overcome. Frustrated and discouraged, he seeks the first opportunity to drop out of school; and if he finds a job at all it will be the lowest paying job. He will be laid off first, will remain unemployed longest, and is least able to adapt to changing occupational requirements.

The Bilingual Education Act was conceived to rectify certain obvious educational defects of the past. But educational discrimination is but one aspect of the ills which characterize our still far from perfect society; and the building of a better education system, resting on a full recognition of many languages and cultures can be expected to make only a modest start toward our full knowledge and acceptance of ourselves for the vast multifarious unhomogeneous nation that we are.

To summarize, a rationale for bilingual schooling in the United States rests on the following proposition:

1. American schooling has not met the needs of children coming from homes where non-English languages are spoken; a radical improvement is therefore urgently needed.
2. Such improvement must first of all maintain and strengthen the sense of identity of children entering the school from such homes.
3. The self-image and sense of dignity of families that speak other languages must also be preserved and strengthened.
4. The child's mother tongue is not only an essential part of his sense of identity; it is also his best instrument for learning, especially in the early stages.
5. Preliminary evidence indicates that initial learning through a child's non-English home language does not hinder learning in English or other school subjects.
6. Differences among first, second, and foreign languages need to be understood if learning through them is to be sequenced effectively.
7. The best order of the learning of basic skills in a language—whether first or second—needs to be understood and respected if best results are to be obtained; this order is normally, especially for children: listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.
8. Young children have an impressive learning capacity; especially in the case of language learning, the young child learns more easily and better than adolescents of adults the sound system, the basic structure, and vocabulary of a language.
9. Closely related to bilingualism is biculturalism, which should be an integral part of bilingual instruction.
10. Bilingual education holds the promise of helping to harmonize various ethnic elements in a community into a mutually respectful and creative pluralistic society.

Another Rationale

We have represented a brief rationale in the form of a Resolution Concerning the Education of Bilingual Children and have sketched the main points which we consider essential to its understanding. We want in conclusion to present another viewpoint, that of A. Bruce Gaarder, a trilingual whose study of bilingual education has been long and intense. The statement which he presented to Senator Yarborough's Special Subcommittee on Bilingual Education on May 18, 1967 is a complete rationale in itself. We reproduce it herewith except for one paragraph, which we have quoted earlier in this chapter.

Prepared Statement of A. Bruce Gaarder,
Chief, Basic Studies Branch,
Division of College Programs, Bureau of
Educational Personnel Development,
U. S. Office of Education[23]

Mr. Chairman and members of the subcommittee, there were in 1960 about five million persons of school age (6-18) in the United States who had a non-English mother tongue. It is reliably estimated that over three million of this group did in fact retain the use of that tongue. In this group of school children who still use the non-English mother tongue, there are 1.75 million Spanish-speakers, about 77,000 American Indians, and slightly over a million from some 30 additional language groups: French, German, Polish, Czech, Yiddish, Ukrainian, and many others. The situation is not known to have changed notably since 1960. These are the children we are concerned with, plus another million or so in the same category under six years of age and soon to enter the schools. They are necessarily and unavoidably bilingual children.

Bilingualism can be either a great asset or a great liability. In our schools millions of these youngsters have been cheated or damaged or both by well-intentioned but ill-informed educational policies which have made of their bilingualism an ugly disadvantage in their lives. The object of this testimony is to show the nature of the damage that has been done and suggest how it can be remedied in the future.

Bilingual education means the use of both English and another language—usually the child's mother tongue—as mediums of instruction in the schools. It is not "foreign language teaching" but rather the use of each language to teach all of the school curriculum (except, of course, the other language itself). There are five main reasons which support bilingual education. The first three apply to the child's years in the elementary school:

1. Children who enter school with less competence in English than monolingual English-speaking children will probably become retarded in their school work to the extent of their deficiency in English, if English is the sole medium of instruction. On the other hand, the bilingual child's conceptual development and acquisition of other experience and information could proceed at a normal rate if the mother tongue were used as an alternate medium of instruction. Retardation is not likely if there is only one or very few non-English-speaking children in an entire school. It is almost inevitable if the non-English language is spoken by large groups of children.
2. Non-English-speaking children come from non-English-speaking homes. The use of the child's mother tongue by some of the teachers and as a school language is necessary if there is to be a strong, mutually reinforcing relationship between the home and the school.
3. Language is the most important exteriorization or manifestation of the self, of the human personality. If the school, the all-powerful school, rejects the mother tongue of an entire group of children, it can be expected to affect seriously and adversely those children's concept of their parents, their homes, and of themselves.

The other two reasons apply when the bilingual child becomes an adult:

4. If he has not achieved reasonable literacy in his mother tongue—ability to read, write, and speak it accurately—it will be virtually useless to him for any technical or professional work where language matters. Thus, his unique potential career advantage, his bilingualism, will have been destroyed.
5. Our people's native competence in Spanish and French and Czech and all the other languages and the cultural heritage each language transmits are a national resource

that we need badly and must conserve by every reasonable means.

I will return later to most of these points.

There is a vast body of writing by educators who believe that bilingualism is a handicap. The evidence seems at first glance to be obvious and incontrovertible. There is a clear, direct chain relationship between language competence, formal education, and economic status among Americans whose mother tongue is not English. The children speak Spanish, or Navajo, or French, and they do poorly in school: therefore, (so goes the argument) their bilingualism is to blame. Many researchers have established a decided correlation between bilingualism and low marks on intelligence tests, but what no research has shown is that bilingualism, per se, is a *cause* of low performance on intelligence tests. On the contrary, studies which have attempted to take into account all of the factors which enter the relationship show that it is not the fact of bilingualism but *how* and *to what extent* and *under what conditions* the two languages are taught that make the difference. (If this were not true, how could one explain the fact that the governing and intellectual elite in all countries have sought to give their children bilingual or even multi-lingual education?) Much of the literature on bilingualism does not deal at all with bilingual education. Rather it shows the unfortunate results when the child's mother tongue is ignored, deplored or otherwise degraded.

The McGill University psychologists, Lambert and Peale (now Anisfeld) have shown that if the bilingualism is "balanced." i.e., if there has been something like equal, normal, literacy developed in the two languages, bilingual 19-year-olds in Montreal are markedly superior to monolinguals on verbal and non-verbal tests of intelligence and appear to have greater mental flexibility, a superiority in concept formation, and a more diversified set of mental abilities. It is their judgment that there is no evidence that the supposed "handicap" of bilingualism is *caused* by bilingualsim, per se, and that "it would be more fruitful to seek that cause in the inadequacy of the measuring instrument and in other variables such as socioeconomic status, attitude toward the two languages, and educational policy and practice regarding the teaching of both languages."

There is an educational axiom, accepted virtually everywhere else in the world, that "the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue." What happens when the mother tongue is so used? A recent study made in Chiapas, Mexico, by Dr. N. Modiano for the New York University School of Education shows the results that can be expected. The Modiano research examined the hypothesis (implicit in current educational policies throughout the United States) that children of linguistic minorities learn to read English with greater comprehension when all reading instruction is offered through English than when they first learn to read in their non-English mother tongue.

The investigation involved all students attending 26 schools in three Indian *municipios* in Chiapas. All students were native speakers of either Tzeltal or Tzotzil, two of the indigenous languages of Mexico. Thirteen were Federal or State schools in which all reading instruction was offered in Spanish. Thirteen were National Indian Institute schools in which literacy was developed in the mother tongue prior to being attempted in Spanish. The purpose of the study was to determine which group of schools produced the greater measure of literacy (specifically, greater reading comprehension) in the national language, Spanish.

Two indications of reading comprehension were obtained. First, all teachers were asked to designate "all of your students who are able to understand what they read in Spanish." Approximately 20 percent of the students in the all-Spanish Federal and State schools were nominated by their teachers as being able to understand what they were asked to read in Spanish. Approximately 37 percent of the students in the bilingual Institute schools were nominated by their teachers as being able to understand what they read in Spanish. The difference favors the bilingual approach beyond the .001 level of probability.

Then, a carefully devised group reading comprehension test was administered to all of the selected children. The children's average score in State and Federal schools was 41.59; in the bilingual institute schools it was 50.30. The difference between these means was found to be significant at beyond the .01 level of probability. Within each of the three *municipios* mean scores in Institute schools were higher than in Federal and State schools. Thus, not only did the teachers using the bilingual approach nominate more of their students for testing, but their judgment was confirmed by the fact that their students scored significantly higher on the group test of reading comprehension.

In Puerto Rico, in 1925, the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, made a study of the educational system on that island, where English was the major medium of instruction despite the fact that the children's mother tongue is Spanish. The Columbia University group undertook a testing program to measure pupil achievement in all grades and particularly to explore the relative effectiveness of learning through each of the two language mediums. To test reading, arithmetic, information, language, and spelling they used the Stanford Achievement Test in its regular English version and in a Spanish version modified to fit Puerto Rican conditions. Over 69,000 tests were given.

The results were displayed on charts so as to reveal graphically any significant difference between achievement through English and achievement through Spanish. Both of these could be compared on the same charts with the average achievement of children in schools in the continental United States. I will summarize the findings in two sentences:

1. In comparison with children in the continental United States, the Puerto Ricans' achievement through English showed them to be markedly retarded.
2. The Puerto Rican children's achievement through Spanish was, by and large, markedly superior to that of continental United States children, who were using their own mother tongue, English.

The Columbia University reserachers, explaining the astonishing fact that those elementary school children in Puerto Rico—poverty-stricken, backward, "benighted," beautiful

Puerto Rico—achieved more through Spanish than continental United States children did through English, came to the following conclusion, one with extraordinary implications for us here:

> Spanish is much more easily learned as a native language than is English.
>
> The facility with which Spanish is learned makes possible the early introduction of content into the primary curriculum.
>
> Every effort should be made to maintain it and to take the fullest advantage of it as a medium of school instruction.

What they were actually saying is that because Spanish has a much better writing system than English (i.e., the writing system matches the sound system) speakers of Spanish can master reading and writing very quickly and can begin to acquire information from the printed page more easily and at an earlier age.

The conclusion is, in sum, that if the Spanish-speaking children of our Southwest were given all of their schooling through both Spanish and English, there is a strong likelihood that not only would their so-called handicap of bilingualism disappear, but *they would have a decided advantage over their English-speaking schoolmates, at least in elementary school, because of the excellence of the Spanish writing system*. There are no "reading problems," as we know them, among school children in Spanish-speaking countries.

And their English could be better too, but that's another story.

American Samoa, with about 20,000 people, is an example of what is meant when children, in communities which have a high degree of linguistic solidarity, are required to study through a language not their own. In American Samoa the home language of the native people is Samoan, and they cling to it tenaciously, even to the extent of providing their children both after-school and weekend instruction in Samoan. In 1963 the Science Research Associates high school placement tests were given to 535 graduates of Samoan junior high schools, i.e., pupils who had completed the ninth grade. The median grade placement score was 5.8, i.e., close to the end of the fifth grade. Only 21 of the 535 pupils scored 9.0, i.e., in the ninth grade, or better. Most of the 21 had studied in the United States or had other unusual advantages. The author of one report judged that one obstacle to the learning of English was the Samoan's pride in their own culture.

. . . .

The establishment of bilingual education programs in our schools could be expected to increase and improve, rather than lessen, emphasis on the proper teaching of English to children who speak another mother tongue. Under our present policy, which supports the ethnocentric illusion that English is not a "foreign" language for anyone in this country, it is almost always taught as if the bilingual child already knew English. Our failure to recognize the mother tongue and thus to present English *as a second language* helps to produce "functional illiteracy" in almost three out of every four Spanish speakers in Texas.

In a bilingual education program, English would be taught from the child's first day in school but his concept development, his acquisition of information and experience–in sum, his total *education*–would not depend on his imperfect knowledge of English. Bilingual education permits making a clear distinction between education and language, i.e., between the content of education and the vehicle through which it is acquired.

I use the example of two window panes, the green-tinted Spanish one and the blue-tinted English one, both looking out on the same world, the same reality. We tell the little child who has just entered the first grade, "You have two windows onto the world, the Spanish one and the English one. Unfortunately, your English window hasn't been built yet, but we're going to work on it as fast as we can and in a few years, maybe, it'll be as clear and bright as your Spanish window. Meantime, even if you don't see much, keep on trying to look out the space where the blue one will be. And stay away from the green one! It's against our educational policy to look through anything tinted green!"

The influx of Spanish-speaking Cuban refugee children into Florida in recent years brought about the establishment of two model bilingual education programs in the Dade County (Miami) public schools. The first is essentially a period a day of Spanish language arts instruction at all grade levels for native speakers of Spanish. It was established, according to educators, there, "because it did not seem right not to do something to maintain and develop these children's native language." The second program is a model bilingual public elementary school (Coral Way) which is now finishing its fourth year of operation. This highly successful school provides us with information on three points of great importance in the present context:

1. At the fifth grade level the children have been found–insofar as this can be determined by achievement testing–to be able to learn equally well through either of their two languages. (This is a level of achievement that cannot be expected in even our best college-level foreign language programs.)
2. Since half of the children are Cubans and half begin as monolingual speakers of English, each learning the other's language and his own, it is apparent that a truly comprehensive bilingual education program can serve not only the non-English mother tongue children *who must necessarily become bilingual*, but also the ordinary monolingual American child who speaks nothing but English and *whose parents want him to become bilingual.*
3. The strength of the program lies in the high quality of the teachers of both languages (all of them native and highly trained speakers of the language in which they teach) and the fullness of the support they get from the school administration and the community. The implications of these three points are momentous.

RECOMMENDATIONS

That comprehensive programs of bilingual education in self-selected schools and for self-selected pupils at all grade levels be supported.

2. That the opportunity to profit from bilingual education be extended to children of all non-English-speaking groups. All are now losers under our present educational one-language policy: at worst they become hopelessly retarded in school; at best they lose the advantage of mastery of their mother tongue.

3. That adequate provision be made for training and otherwise securing teachers capable of using the non-English tongue as a medium of instruction.

4. That there be provisions for cooperative efforts by the public schools and the non-English ethnic organizations which have thus far worked unaided and unrecognized to maintain two-language competence in their children.

5. That provision be made for safeguarding the quality of the bilingual education programs which receive Federal financial assistance.

NOTES

[1] "An Outline of Linguistic Typologies for Describing Multilingualism," in *Study of the Role of Second Languages in Asia, Africa, and Latin America*. Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D. C., 1962, p. 15.

[2] See for example William R. Parker, *The National Interest and Foreign Languages*, 3rd ed., Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1961.

[3] United States Congress. Senate. *Bilingual Education*. Hearings...., p. 54.

[4] See Appendix G.

[5] UNESCO (1953).

[6] Ibid., p. 11.

[7] "National or Mother Language in Beginning Reading: A Comparative Study," *Research in the Teaching of English*, Vol. I., No. 2 (Spring 1968), pp. 32-43.

[8] See Bruce Gaarder's account of this significant experiment later in this chapter.

[9] Dr. Benjamin F. Elson, Director of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, reported at the Chicago Conference that the SIL works with some 430 aboriginal and minority group languages (30 in the United States and Canada) in 20 countries. The usual procedure is (1) to make a linguistic and cultural study, (2) to devise alphabets and produce primers and readers (including a translation of the New Testament), and (3) to organize educational programs in cooperation with the government, beginning with literacy in the local language and moving to literacy in the national language.

[10] Joshua Fishman reminds us, however, that in most schools a variety of the mother tongue is used which is different from that spoken in the home (e.g., High German rather than Swiss German in the German parts of Switzerland and French French rather than Canadian French in French Canada).

[11] Mabel Wilson Richardson (1968) reports as follows concerning the Coral Way School in Miami: "The bilingual program of study was relatively as effective for both English and Spanish-speaking subjects as the regular curriculum in achieving progress in the language arts and in arithmetic....

"It must be noted here that, in addition to performing as well as the control group in the regular curriculum, the English-speaking pupils were learning a second language and the Spanish-speaking pupils were learning to read and write their native language."

Bertha Alicia Gámez Treviño (1968) found that children in the Nye School, United Consolidated Independent School District, outside Laredo, Texas, both English-speaking and

Spanish-speaking, learn mathematics better bilingually (in English and Spanish) than they do in English alone.

[12] Carnegie Corporation of New York, *Carnegie Quarterly*, Vol. XVII, No. 1 (Winter 1969), p. 1.

[13] *Newsweek*, January 29, 1968, p. 48.

[14] Osgood, *Method and Theory in Experimental Psychology*, p. 684.

[15] "Measurement of the Size of General English Vocabulary Through the Elementary Grades and High School." *Genetic Psychology Monograph*, Vol. XXIV, Second Half (November 1941), pp. 343-344.

[16] *A Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children*, p. 12.

[17] "On the Intuitive Capacity of Children to Understand Spoken Languages," *British Journal of Psychology*, Vol. XVI, Part 1 (July 1925), p. 52.

[18] Theodore Andersson, *Foreign Languages in the Elementary School: A Struggle Against Mediocrity*, p. 42.

[19] Penfield, Wilder, G. and Lamar Roberts, *Speech and Brain-Mechanisms*, Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1959, p. 253.

[20] *Mr. Prime Minister, 1876-1964*, p. 288.

[21] For similar findings in school settings see Mildred R. Donoghue, "Foreign Languages in the Elementary School: Effects and Instructional Arrangements According to Research," *ERIC Focus Reports on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, No. 3, 1969 MLA/ACTFL Materials Center, 62 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10011.

[22] Naert, Pierre, and Halldór Halldórsson, et al., "Appel d'un ensemble de profusseurs des universités scandinaves en faveur de groupes ethniques et de langues menacées de disparition," *Revue de psychologie des Peuples,* Vol. XVII, (1962), p. 355.

[23] United States Congress. Senate. *Bilingual Education*. Hearings Before the Special Subcommittee on Bilingual Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, United States Senate, Ninetieth Congress, First Session, on S. 428, A Bill to Amend the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 in Order to Provide Assistance to Local Educational Agencies in Establishing Bilingual American Education Programs, and to Provide Certain Other Assistance to Promote Such Programs. Part 1, May 18, 19, 26, 29, and 31, 1967. Printed for the use of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967, pp. 51-55.

CHAPTER V

PLANNING A BILINGUAL PROGRAM

The present chapter is addressed primarily to the local school board, the school administration, and the teaching staff, in a community that has a concentration of non-English speakers in its population. These non-English speakers represent both a responsibility and a potential educational resource. Just how the local education agency meets this responsibility and exploits this resource depends on the attitude and conscience of the community. Some ethnic groups, whatever their true feelings, make little display of interest in maintaining their mother tongue; others are clamoring for this right. The question of whether or not to establish a program of bilingual schooling should be faced by the board and the superintendent without waiting for the community to take the initiative and, most certainly, before they are forced to do so by public pressure.

Study Committee

Once the school board is convinced that there is in the community a strong potential for bilingual education, a suitable first step is to appoint a broadly representative committee to study the feasibility of such schooling. This committee should include educators and laymen, representatives of both ethnic groups, enthusiastic proponents of bilingual schooling and complete skeptics, and able persons with open minds, willing to consider evidence. Depending on the local situation, the board may wish to invite the cooperation of the city council and representative civic or ethnic organizations. Care must be taken to insure a serious, non-partisan study and to avoid a political power struggle.

In instructing the committee the board ought to request a comprehensive study of the local non-English-speaking population, including number of speakers, socioeconomic distribution, educational achievement of various age groups, and attitude toward education. As it begins its study, the committee may wish to take a sampling of public opinion to serve as a guide in its deliberations. It may be necessary to explain to the public the basic issues concerning bilingual education and thus provide a basis for an objective expression of public opinion at the conclusion of the study. In addition to doing a good deal of background reading, the committee will want to visit representative bilingual programs and consult knowledgeable educators. In its final report the committee should assay the potential public support for bilingual schooling, the cost of a program, the sources of financial support, and the availability of adequate instructional resources.

If, after all the evidence has been considered, the committee reports a negative attitude on the part of the community, the school board may simply want to accept the report and await a more favorable occasion.

Advisory Committee

If, on the other hand, the committee recommends a bilingual program as desirable and the school board concurs in this finding, several steps are indicated which would lead ultimately to the implementation of this recommendation. The first of these is the appointment of an advisory committee on bilingual schooling, which, like the study committee, should consist of both educators and laymen and representatives of both the English and non-English groups. It might even be possible to convert the study committee into an advisory committee or at least to retain certain members on the new board. The advisory committee's function would be threefold. (1) Beginning where the study committee has left off, it would assist the school administration in defining the goals of a bilingual program in such a way as best to serve the needs and aspirations of the community; and periodically it should review and, if necessary, redefine these goals. (2) It should help interpret the program to the community and thus assure the school administration of maximal public support. (3) It should be sensitive to doubts in the community and should itself raise questions, when needed, concerning the conduct of the program.

Program Coordinator

A natural next step is the appointment of a program coordinator. Such a coordinator should be a bilingual educator, either a native speaker of the ethnic language of the community who also has a good command of English or a native speaker of English who has a good command of the non-English language and a sympathetic understanding of the culture of the community. He should also be sensitive to public relations and to the demands of the position, realizing that it will involve children, schools, curriculum design, evaluation, and research. His training should have included work in sociology, linguistics, anthropology, and psychology. And, adds one of our collaborators, he should have a tendency to be lucky in the things he undertakes to do.

The coordinator's responsibility is to implement the basic policy which has been determined by the school board and the school administration as a result of the findings of the study committee and the recommendations of the advisory committee. For maximum efficiency, the coordinator and the teaching staff should, from the beginning, participate in the planning and preparation of a bilingual program. If the coordinator and bilingual teachers are not already on the staff as plans are taking shape, they should be appointed at the earliest possible moment.

As soon as the coordinator has become familiar with the situation and has won the confidence of his colleagues, both above and below him in the hierarchy, he should take more initiative in proposing possible improvements in the program. Questions to be reconsidered frequently are the following: (1) Are the goals of the program soundly based? (2) Is the community kept informed, and are parents and other volunteers invited to participate in the program? (3) Can the program be improved? What are the best teaching arrangements? What are the best materials, in English and in the other language? Is the program experimentally designed? Are plans for evaluation adequate? Is there primary concern for quality?

A special word of caution is advisable on this last point. It is natural that once the school administration, teaching staff, and community are enthusiastic about the prospect of a bilingual program they should want to extend it to as many children as possible. Bilingual schooling is for most communities a totally new undertaking. Initial mistakes are inevitable and ample provision should be made for their easy correction, because a major failure could have profound repercussions in the community. As between quantity and quality, the latter is by all odds to be preferred. Therefore, the school authorities may wish to limit the initial operation to preschool or to preschool and first grade. They may decide to do this on a pilot basis in one school first. However it is done, the matter of quality should be carefully controlled.

Another task for which the coordinator is primarily responsible is the recruitment of bilingual teachers; teacher aides; and specialists in curriculum design, materials development, and evaluation. Bilingual librarians, nurses, guidance counselors, and public relations specialists will also be needed, but these can be shared with other parts of the school program.

The bilingual staff, or as many of them as can be appointed in advance, will need a long period for the preparation of the program—from six months to a year, at least. During this period arrangements for housing the program will have to be completed; personnel appointments made; a complete curriculum designed; plans for evaluation made; library orders processed; materials selected, adapted, or created for teaching and testing; and much more. Parents and as many volunteers as can be interested should be involved in plans and preparations.

There might well be a place for such volunteers in producing a body of written material in the ethnic language, writing down oral literature and folklore, and the like. There may be a special place for the older generation, to produce in writing (or on tape so that it can be transcribed) some of the wisdom of the cultural group and autobiographical material which gives something of the local history.

One minor but significant contribution would consist of sheets, a booklet, or an anthology of literature written by authors belonging to the non-English group. The contents might range from poems and short stories to documents of local relevance, e.g., letters written a century ago and the like. Spicing bilingual instruction with local and regional compositions written in the non-English language can be an effective means of awakening ethnic pride and of removing the reproach that this particular language is bound up with "foreignness."[1]

Full information should be planned for the news media, a newsletter prepared, and descriptive statements of the program written for distribution to inquirers. On the coordinator too will fall the main burden for making personal visits to key people in the community, giving public talks, appearing on TV programs, keeping in close touch with the advisory committee, and much more.

The principle of accountability to the public should be established early and maintained throughout the program.

Having made these preparations, the school administration is ready for its first year of operation, which should be clearly labeled experimental. Every effort should be exerted to maintain flexibility, so that changes may be made with a minimum of disruption. At the end of the first year, following a complete evaluation—which at this early stage can only be indicative, not conclusive—a decision should be made whether to continue the program on an experimental basis for a second year, to declare the experimental period over, or to abandon the project altogether.

Since planning should not stop with the launching of a program, let us consider in some detail a few of the elements of the program we have already mentioned.

Public Information

The most basic need is to foster a positive public attitude. A public that does not believe in bilingual schooling will not support it, and the public cannot be expected to believe without having the *facts* and some interpreting. Public information is therefore an important and continuing need of any successful program.

The bilingual coordinator can perhaps undertake this reporting function if the school system is small. In a large school system a special information officer would have to be appointed to assume this responsibility.

The need of reporting is especially acute in the case of a bilingual community. As John M. Hickman has remarked in an article, "Wherever there is bilingualism there will always be a certain degree of separation between knowledge and conduct...."[1a] In such a situation the information officer serves not only as the interpreter of the program to the public but also of one ethnic group to the other.

A satisfactory technique for handling information naturally includes two-way communication. More important even than getting accurate information to the public is listening for public reaction. Suggestions, criticisms, and complaints can be helpful if they are carefully studied by the competent authorities and responsible replies are made either to the individual critics or to the public at large.

Parental Involvement

Some of the most successful and secure programs we have observed are those in which parents are most intimately involved. At the same time we have heard complaints that non-English-speaking parents will not attend PTA meetings or other school activities. There are of course reasons for this. The school administration, bilingual coordinator and staff, and the advisory committee can perhaps overcome this reticence by analyzing the situation and taking the proper measures. We are told that meetings held on Sunday afternoon and conducted in the language of the parents are often successful. Real involvement can be achieved by listening carefully to what the parents have to say and by giving them a chance to make classroom supplies with their own hands according to specifications provided by the teachers. These can include charts, simple kinds of educational toys, blocks, bean-bags, pencil or crayon holders, etc.

Each school system will need to evolve its own system for encouraging parental participation and then communicate its techniques to others.

Preparation of Teachers and Teacher Aides

Vigorous action is needed to increase the number and improve the preparation of teachers and teacher aides. Teachers who have had little or no opportunity for a formal education in their own language naturally lack confidence in the classroom. When sufficiently motivated, they can make up in part for this lack of opportunity by studying privately, by attending special local courses of instruction, or by spending summers or a year in a university, preferably in a country of the language concerned. Information on how to get financial support should be an early concern of the bilingual coordinator, the advisory committee, and the school administration.

The steady supply of competent bilingual teachers is the responsibility of teacher-preparing institutions, but local school administrators can do two things to assure good cooperation with colleges and universities that supply them teachers. They can specify in detail the kinds of competencies needed in their teachers, and they can report their evaluations of teachers to the institutions that prepared them. The need in bilingual programs of various kinds of specialists, and in much greater numbers than heretofore, makes it particularly desirable for local school systems and preparing institutions to maintain a close working relationship.

Until such time as teacher-preparing institutions, in cooperation with the United States Office of Education, can develop programs capable of producing competent bilingual teachers in sufficient numbers, other measures will have to be adopted. One of these, which has already been tried on a limited scale, is that of using foreign teachers. Whether arranged on an exchange basis or not, the best use of foreign teachers should be studied and procedures should be developed for increasing the use of this promising source of competent teachers.

The recruitment, training, and further education of teacher aides also deserves high priority. Some teacher aides show considerable potential for becoming good teachers but are deterred from pursuing their education for economic reasons. If a system could be worked out for encouraging them and providing instruction or the means of self-instruction, some could in time qualify for a degree and a teacher certificate.

In the preparation of bilingual teachers—especially when the only bilinguals available are not highly educated—it is useful to provide very complete teacher's guides. In the case of beginning primers step-by-step instructions should be given to the teacher. These instructions, of course, provide a minimum, not a maximum. They can give assurance to the insecure teacher who is just beginning; it would be expected, however, that he would amplify the material in the guidebook as he gains confidence.

These are short-range measures. Long-range measures, designed to erase the shortage of qualified teachers, would consist of a program throughout the grades for identifying vocations suitable for bilinguals. These might include, among others, bilingual secretaries, social workers, telephone operators, nurses, translators, and, especially, bilingual teachers. Such fields as technical assistance, international business, and diplomacy are other possibilities. There is no reason, however, to avoid featuring the teacher among "community helpers" in the early grades. And children can occasionally be given an opportunity to play the role of teacher. As children think about what they want to do or be, the teacher can tactfully include his own profession among the many other possibilities. The personal satisfaction of the teacher and the social contribution he makes need not be emphaiszed more than those of the artist, the musician, the physician, the engineer, the foreign correspondent, the inventor, etc., but neither should they be minimized. Perhaps the most satisfactory procedure would be to plan cooperatively with the whole staff for the systematic and attractive featuring of a broad range of professions and occupations.

Since all children are exposed to teaching throughout their impressionable years, some say no special steps need to be taken to interest children in teaching; that the only thing necessary to spark their interest is for the teaching which the children observe to be as interesting as possible.

The obvious conclusion is that both approaches might be used with profit.

Objectives

Once the bilingual coordinator has secured a complete staff of bilingual teachers, he and they, working as a close-knit team, face their main task: defining objectives, planning the curriculum, and deciding on evaluation procedures.

Staff members may have inherited from the administration and advisory committee a list of objectives, but they cannot be expected to implement these objectives without scrutinizing them critically. The selected goals must be acceptable not only to the school board, the administration, and the advisory committee—representing the community—but also must be ones that the staff can believe in and will find possible to attain.

A statement of objectives should include the following features, in addition to the usual academic achievements:

1. Expected outcomes for the non-English-speaking child in his native language, in English, and in his attitudes toward both cultures.
2. Expected outcomes for the English-speaking child in English, in the non-English language, and in his attitudes toward both cultures.

The great difficulty is to state objectives clearly and in measurable terms. Language objectives, for example, may be subdivided into listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. For each of these a concrete level of achievement might be indicated at each grade level. Despite the fact that they are intended for adults, the Modern Language Association Statement of Qualifications for Foreign Language Teachers[2] and the State Department Foreign Service Institute[3] definition of levels of language proficiency would be helpful guides in defining competency in the basic language skills in non-English languages. Similar guides and tests exist for English as a second language.[4] Other concrete measures of language proficiency involve vocabulary and structure counts.

The concrete measurement of cultural attitudes presents a much greater problem, but some work has been done on attitude scales.[4a] These scales can serve as guides in defining attitude objectives and in testing attitudes.

Similarly, for the rest of the curriculum, whether taught unilingually or bilingually, specific objectives should be stated in concrete terms. A statement of objectives presumably already exists, for those parts of the program which are taught in English only, but it will have to be changed because of the bilingual situation. For subjects taught in the non-English language it will be necessary to state both objectives and proposed methods of evaluating achievement. These objectives and methods will be different for English speakers and non-English speakers at various grade levels.

The Curriculum

Even if a school system is lucky enough to afford a curriculum specialist for the bilingual program, share one with the rest of the school program, or have at its disposal the services of a specialist from a neighboring university or regional educational laboratory or service center, the designing and frequent revision of the bilingual curriculum are of constant concern to the coordinator and the teaching staff.

Having agreed on the basic teaching medium—either English alone, with the other language as a temporary bridge, or both English and the other language—the entire staff will need to design one or more curricula to achieve their stated goals.[5] The advisory committee may be helpful in developing curricula; in any case it should be kept informed of progress in this as in other areas.

The main criteria to be observed in planning the curriculum are the stated objectives, the cultures and sub-cultures of the community, the needs and aspirations of the community, the age of the children, their socioeconomic background, their stage of educational advancement, the balance between their two languages, the differences between the two languages, the best order of learning, and motivation. These factors are so complex that they call for a real curriculum specialist or, better, close collaboration among various specialists. For this reason, each school district that undertakes a bilingual program should realize it is working in a relatively new field. It is not enough to solve the local curricular problem and then throw away the key to the solution. The *way* problems are solved is important, not only locally but for others pursuing the same goals. A careful record should be kept of the procedure—the questions posed and tentative answers given, as well as the final solution and the rationale used. If we are to have a minimum of wasted effort and duplication in this new educational venture, program designers engaged in developing similar curricula must maintain close communication.

Materials. Among the factors listed above under curriculum one of the most important is motivation. A child who is interested is more likely to learn than one who is not. Interest depends on the teacher and his success in making his teaching relevant, on the materials he uses, and on the value the child places on education. All three are related and almost inseparable. In the planning and production of materials, special action is needed. One of the most important criteria for selecting, adapting, or creating materials is their potential for catching and holding the interest of children. This is more fundamental than such factors as vocabulary range and grammatical difficulty, although these too should receive attention, secondarily. Children *may* learn from fascinating but inefficiently constructed materials; they will probably *not* learn much, in spite of superb engineering, if their interest is not held captive.

Early Childhood Learning. Special action is needed in the area of early childhood learning. Since very young children are known to be avid learners, the bilingual staff should consider the appropriateness of a readiness program for non-English-speaking children from birth to school age. One model would be the Carnegie sponsored program in Ypsilanti, Michigan, which provides teachers who go the the homes to tutor mothers and infants. Even if teachers cannot be made available to teach in the homes, materials and instructions prepared for non-English-speaking parents to use in the home promises to be of great benefit. These materials could be designed for both passive and active learning. Children should have the opportunity to play with a variety of toys, to listen to and make music, to look at and make pictures, to recognize and make the letters of the alphabet, and, if so inclined, to read and write. Suggestions to parents about what to watch for in the growth and development of children or even concerning health and nutrition can have adirect educational benefit. Joshua Lederberg, writing in the *Washington Post* of Sunday, April 6, 1969, on "The Jensen Study: Genetics of Intelligence," states that "In New York City, women of low socioeconomic status were given vitamin and mineral supplements during pregnancy. These women gave birth to children who, at four years of age, averaged eight points higher in IQ than a control group of children whose mothers have been given placebos during pregnancy." It is tempting to speculate on the benefits that might result from a relatively minor expenditure for modest educational materials in the home, as well as improved nutrition, and the early collaboration of parents in preparing their children for school.

Experimentation and Evaluation

Any school district of a certain size should perhaps appoint a research specialist who can design experiments to answer some of the many questiosn we have about bilingual schooling. As things are presently organized in schools, teachers have no time for experimentation, whether or not they are interested in it. It is unreasonable to expect *every* teacher to become research conscious, but would it not be productive when specialists are not available to identify those teachers who have a taste for experimentation and free them to pursue this interest?

One of the easiest ways to liberate interested teachers is to provide them with assistants who can collect the milk money, keep the attendance records, deal with the school photographer and other salesmen, help the children with their snowsuits, monitor the playground and the bathroom, and take care of a thousand and one other chores which at present take an incredible portion of a teacher's time. Interested parents of any ethnic background could be exceedingly useful in performing these duties, and perhaps find pride in sharing in the educational process.

The school system can also collaborate with a neighboring university or regional laboratory which has resources for research. A fine example of the fruit of such a collaboration is work conducted in McGill University by a team headed by Wallace E. Lambert in conjunction with an experimental program in the early grades of the St. Lambert Elementary School, just outside of Montreal. The first report will shortly appear[6] and the second, by W. E. Lambert, M. Just, and N. Segalowitz, titled "Some Cognitive Consequences of Following the Curricula of Grades One and Two in a Foreign Language," is in mimeograph form.

Experimentation depends on testing; but even if one is not interested in experimentation, evaluation is an indispensable part of a bilingual, or any other, program. Without testing, a teacher cannot determine whether he and the children have achieved the stated aims of a program. Educators are pretty well agreed, however, that at no point in this basic educational process have we reached total agreement as to procedure. Aims are frequently not stated in measurable terms. In teaching, teachers tend to lose sight of their aims. And rare indeed is the teacher whose testing really measures to what extent he has taught what needed to be learned.

This being so, a person responsible for testing is an indispensable member of the bilingual team—to be shared, if necessary, with other parts of the program. The great need is for the most advanced thinking about evaluation to be communicated to the bilingual staff so that the statement of aims, the teaching, and the testing may all be correlated.

Let us remark, in conclusion, that these modest suggestions are offered in the hope that they will be helpful to those responsible for planning a bilingual program. They are meant in addition to suggest some often overlooked needs of a program which administrators may wish to consider as they prepare proposals.

NOTES

[1] See Heinz Kloss, "German as an Immigrant, Indigenous, Second, and Foreign Language in the United States," *The German Language in America*, Dr. Glenn G. Gilbert, Ed. To be published by The University of Texas Press, Austin, 1970.

[1a] John M. Hickman, "Barreras Lingüísticas y Socioculturales a la Communicación."

[2] See Appendix H.

[3] For further information write to the Director, School of Foreign Languages, Foreign Service Institute, Department of State, Washington, D. C.

[4] For information write to the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

[5] See Chapter VI.

[6] W. E. Lambert and J. Macnamara, "Some Cognitive Consequences of Following a First-Grade Curriculum in a Second Language," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1969, in press.

CHAPTER VI

THE PROGRAM

Objectives

The objectives of a bilingual program are:

To plan and prepare the program in such a way as to gain the understanding and active support of all segments of the community.

To create in both school and community a situation which will enable all children—E-speaking and X-speaking—to "touch their outermost limits" of learning.

Specifically,

To plan and conduct the program in such a way that either language, or both, is used for most effective learning in any part of the curriculum.

To encourage all children, each at his own best rate, to cultivate their first language fully: to develop skill in all the language arts—listening comprehension, speaking, memorizing, reading, and writing.

To encourage all children to develop fully their second language, each at his own best rate of learning.

To enable all children to gain a sympathetic understanding of their own history and culture and of the history and culture of the other ethnic group.

In summary,

To give all children the opportunity to become fully articulate and literate and broadly educated in two languages and sensitive to two cultures.

The purposes are plain enough. The question is: Are they attainable, and are they worth the trouble and expense? Assuming affirmative answers, five main areas need to be considered.

I. *Content or Subject Matter*

In which language should each subject be taught? Should some or all be taught in both? How should sectioning be handled? Does it make a difference what the "other" language and culture is? Should the content be affected by bilingual schooling? If so, in what way?

II. *Time*

What time patterns are supportable under the Bilingual Education Act (BEA)? Should the program ultimately aim toward half the school time in each language—half in English (E) and half in the other language spoken in the community (X)? Or in the long run should English receive most or even all of the time in the school day? In either case, which language should carry the heavier load in the earliest stages, the child's dominant language or the language he stands in need of acquiring?

III. *Methods and Materials*

How can everything be gotten in? Should instruction be duplicated? To what extent are materials available and adequate in X, through the full range of subjects and levels, for children who speak this language better than English? What is there in English for children who speak another language, and how good is it? Are there suitable materials for native English-speakers seeking a bicultural education? What use can be made of current "foreign language" materials? What about materials from abroad? To what degree must availability of materials shape the program? What are the chances that "teacher-made" materials will justify the time and effort that go into them? What if the other language one is dealing with is unwritten?

IV. *Teachers*

What are the proper qualifications for teachers in a bilingual program? What are the advantages and disadvantages of using one bilingual as the teacher? Of using teams, on the "one teacher–one language" principle? How can local bilingual teachers and aides who received all their formal education through English be used best to promote bilingual education? What are the pros and cons of foreign teachers? Looking to the future, how should teachers for bilingual programs be trained?

V. *Evaluation*

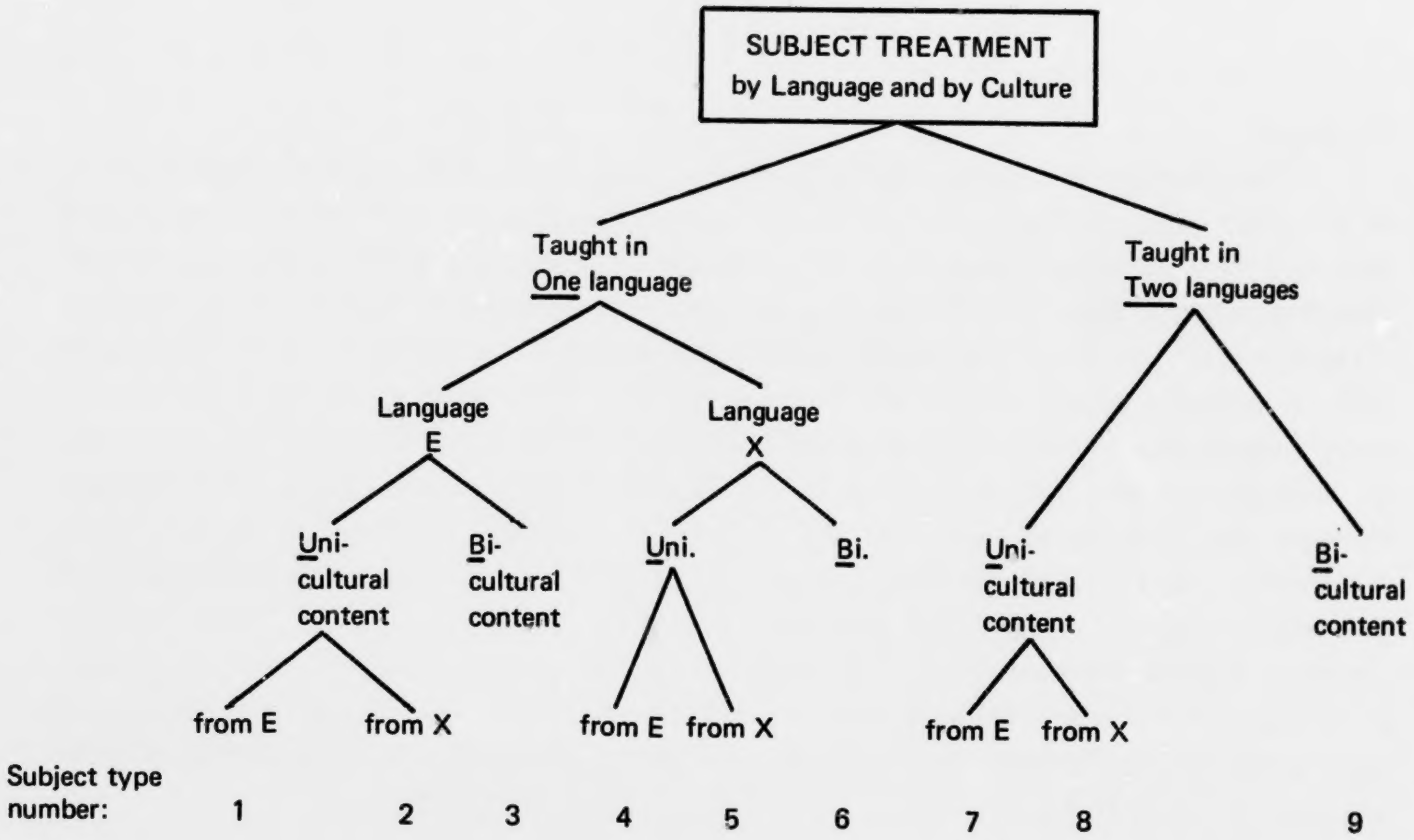
What instruments are there to evaluate a) candidates for teaching positions; b) children's linguistic, conceptual, and attitudinal status, both on entering and at various points along the way; c) achievement in each content area in the appropriate language or languages at each grade level; d) effectiveness–separately and together–of materials, teaching, and program design in moving toward the community's goals for its children's education? How can the means for revision be built into a program?

In trying to cope with these questions, there is apparently no really good place to start. The complexity of the picture is enormous–so great in fact that one would be tempted to give it up altogether except for the fact that here and there, in various circumstances, true bilingual-bicultural education *does take place*, and we have glimpsed it now and again with our own eyes. The result, when it happens, is to our minds so worth striving for that it dignifies whatever efforts we make to set our children on that path.

So, then, to the grubby details! The five topics we have named above are all inextricably intertwined. We, the authors, will say what we can on various aspects of the problems. We will at times express our biases, and we will often expose our ignorance (oftener than we mean to, no doubt). What we cannot do is offer any town or city a whole, organized plan: that must be done by every community for itself.

I. *Content or Subject Matter*

In each separate curricular area, planners must decide not only which language or languages will be unicultural or bicultural in content. Borrowing a schematic idea from William F. Mackey's "A Typology of Bilingual Education,"[1] we can represent these possible language and content choices thus:


SUBJECT TREATMENT
by Language and by Culture
Taught in One language
Taught in Two languages
Language E
Language X
Uni-cultural content
Bi-cultural content
Uni.
Bi.
Uni-cultural content
Bi-cultural content
from E
from X
from E
from X
from E
from X
Subject type number:
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9

One illustration (not necessarily one we recommend) of each of these types follows:

1. Standard American mathematics curriculum, taught in English only.

2. French mathematics curriculum, translated into English and taught in E only. The obverse of number 1.

3. Social studies with bicultural (E and X) content, but taught in E only.

4. Standard American social studies, unicultural in content, translated into Portuguese and taught in Portuguese only.

5. Spanish language arts, taught in Spanish only.

6. Social studies with bicultural (E and X) content, but taught in X only. The obverse of number 3.

7. Standard American science curriculum; original in E, plus a version in X translated from E. Children study the same unicultural content in both language versions.

8. French mathematics curriculum; original in French plus a translated version in E. Children study the same unicultural content in both languages. The obverse of number 7.

9. Social studies with bicultural (E and X) content; independent but compatible versions in E and in X (not duplications). Children study bicultural content in both language versions. The effect of number 9 can sometimes be achieved within the child (if not within the school's teaching) if he studies a subject both by number 1 and by number 5.[2]

In considering these various possibilities, it will sometimes make less difference how one decides for a single subject than how the overall pattern takes shape. Overall distributions will be discussed in the section on Time.

Sectioning

The language arts portion of the program has been more fully developed here than any of the others. In part this is because the authors are language teachers and this is what they have had most experience with. But more importantly, language itself is the *sine qua non* of a bilingual program; there must be two languages involved. Even if only English is to be taught in "language arts," the other language is *in the children*; and, if the program is to be fundable by BEA, it will also appear somewhere in the curriculum. This being so, we hope planners for every subject area of a bilingual school will read all of section A, where most of our basic ideas on language are set forth. Proficiency in language is at the core of a child's ability to learn through this medium, to use a specific language as a means of advancing his education. Whether one should sectionize on this basis, and, if he does, how long he should continue to give children special instructional treatment geared to the degree of their mastery of each language, depends on two things: one's philsosphy of language learning, and one's conception of how the philosophy is to be applied in a real school. So far, American schools have put all their effort into fitting the child to the language of the school. We ask now whether a better way may not be to fit the language of the school, at least in part, to the child.

A. *Language Arts*

Language arts, in a bilingual school, should be treated either as one subject or as two, depending on whether only English is taught, or both English (E) and another language (X).

English language arts for children who are dominant in E can take the form of either type 3 or type 1. We prefer 3 because it is bicultural.

English language arts for X-dominant children takes one of the same forms (type 3 or type 1), but to these children E is a second language. To the extent that it is sectioned, taught in a different way, such English language arts is commonly called ESL (English as a second language). Although the use of highly structured materials is one approach that is widely known and used–and identified, sometimes erroneously, with "linguistic" principles–this approach is not the only means of teaching English as a second language. The term ESL is therefore at times ambiguous.

Language arts may also include the teaching of X as a subject. When this happens, X language arts can take forms paralleling those just described for English:

X language arts for X-dominant children (here type 6 or type 5).

X language arts for English-speaking children (again type 6 or type 5). These programs are the closest to what is now called FLES (foreign language in the elementary school); but in a bilingual program they should take on greatly expanded meaning, as we will see. As between type 6 and type 5, we again prefer the bicultural type 6.

In order to make a clear distinction between dominant language and weaker or second language, we will discuss these various language arts programs in this order; that is, we will talk first of E and X as "mother tongues," and then of each as a second language.

The Child's First Language

Language is the bed-rock of American elementary education, and once we come to realize its function in a young child's earliest experiences in school, we are well on the way to understanding what bilingual education can mean.

The first distinction to be made, as far as the school is concerned, is what language the child understands; or, if he knows two or more, which one he understands best. This is using what Mackey calls a "wide-mesh screen"[3] and it should not be cluttered at this point by judgments about "correctness" and "non-correctness." For most immediate purposes, it will be well to assume that one language is stronger or "dominant" in the child when he enters schools. It is also well to proceed on the assumption that the child can and does talk: referring to him as alingual[4] will usually only cloud the issue.

A second distinction is needed, to denote two different *kinds* of languages that may be involved along with English in bilingual schooling in the United States. This is not to set relative values on the languages as such. Every native tongue used anywhere in the world is central to each of its speakers' very being. Every language is reducible to writing, and every one is expandable to incorporate the means for expressing every object and every thought known to have existed among humankind. And beyond actual and potential use of every tongue to its own native speakers, there is something more: our needs as a human race. Somehow, in a manner not yet understood, the wisdom and the ways of peoples who have used each language through the ages cling to the language itself, as oil does to a clay pot. Mankind's problems are not yet solved, and until they are we can ill afford the loss of a single vessel where other ways of being are stored, or even remotely remembered.

Yet in planning bilingual programs beginning from where we are, there are certain differences to be seen. On the one hand there are the languages of wider communication,[5] such as Spanish, French, and Portuguese; and on the other hand the more local languages, such as Navajo, Hopi, and the Eskimo tongues.[6] Which one of these kinds of languages one is dealing with can affect the program in various ways: in selection of which subjects to teach through X, in how far up the grades to plan using X as a medium, in availability of materials, and in possible sources of teachers. To the extent that this distinction seems useful, we will try to bear it in mind in the discussions that follow.

1. *Language Arts, Dominant E*

Program plans and content for the English-speaking child are already under way, and there is little point in describing them here. English teachers know the range, from pre-reading to advanced literature, both oral and written. The one important extra dimension suggested by bilingual schooling is that adaptations in content may be desirable, especially if the school aims to be bicultural as well as bilingual. In dominant-E language arts, the teacher should of course adhere to language arts criteria of quality and developmental usefulness, but within this framework he can contribute greatly to furthering the aims of bilingual-bicultural education. One example might mean taking specific measures to include more high-quality material with—for instance—social studies content. Fine and effective use of language is not, after all, limited to the field of *belles lettres;* and broadening the horizons of this subject to overlap the rest of the curriculum would go far toward answering the crucial question of over-all time—how to get everything in.[7] A more obvious example of how the language arts teacher can advance the program is in the realm of purely imaginative oral and written literature. The teacher must choose, and his choices should be consciously affected by the kind of attitudes and values, as well as tastes, that he wishes to instill in the children. This is especially important at the primary and intermediate levels. In the opinion of the authors, ethnocentrism in any subject area—especially if it is benign or unconscious—can scuttle a bilingual program.

2. *Language Arts, Dominant X*

The normal English-speaking child, on his first day at school, brings with him a certain amount of linguistic equipment. So standard, so fully expected is this equipment that we tend to forget there is any other way for a child of that age to *be*. This six-year-old understands when he is spoken to (in English, of course), and he may or may not talk (again, in English, of course). If he doesn't talk we don't call him alingual; we don't summon a speech therapist or a remedial teacher; we simply say he is shy. He is a perfectly normal first-grader whose dominant language is English, and we accept him and take him from there. What we seem at times to be incredibly dense about is that it is *just* as normal to speak something *other* than English. Billions of people all over the earth do it, including millions of children in the United States. The six-year-olds in this group are the perfect counterparts of the kind of child described above: they understand the language in which they have grown up to the age of six, and they talk or don't talk as they think the circumstances require. The difference—the *only* difference worth discussing from the language arts point of view at this moment—is that the dominant language of these latter children is not English, but X. What then should be the objectives of language arts in X, when X is the children's dominant language?

(2a) *When Dominant X Is a Language of Wider Communication*

When an English-speaking child starts to school, we build (quite sanely, for once) on what he has: the ability to understand his language at his age level when he hears it, and to speak it to his own purposes. We put reading and writing at the beginning of his school program because we think of them as the foundations of all the rest of his formal education, among the most useful tools for acquiring knowledge, and "the door to the whole of the literature and culture connected with his language" (Sarah Gudschinsky).

A child whose dominant tongue is any other of the world's languages of wider communication deserves an opportunity to learn reading and writing in his language for the same reasons; and just as in the case of the English-speaker, reading and writing in the dominant tongue (now X) should be the prime objective of his first year at school. These great languages have venerable traditions, and all educated people recognize their inherent value. Any child who brings to school a six-year old's mastery of one of them comes equipped with a learning tool that millions of adults strive vainly to acquire later in life. To ignore the child's priceless possession, to despise it through our own ignorance, or to truncate its natural development and refinement by denying its use as a medium of formal instruction is, in the writers' view, not only short-sighted and inefficient; it is an educational crime.

The reasons for learning to read have much in common, whether it be in English or in one of the other major languages. Teaching young native speakers how to do it will also share some features, but not necessarily all. The following is Sarah Gudschinsky's statement, in a personal communication to us, of what a reading-readiness program in the dominant language does or should consist of:

> 1) an understanding of what reading is (through the experience of being read to, and the experience of seeing one's own utterance written by someone else and read back);
>
> 2) aural-oral skills (including specifically the ability to focus on the phonemes of one's own language; this might include producing words which begin with the same sound, words which rhyme, etc.);
>
> 3) visual skills (including particularly the ability to discriminate visually the shapes of letters);
>
> 4) manual skills (including the control of pencil and paper, and perhaps also chalk or crayon);
>
> 5) development of adult or nearly adult control of the structure of the language of instruction, and sufficient vocabulary (and experiences represented by such vocabulary) to read with understanding the material of instruction.
>
> In an active school program of reading-readiness, point 1 is most essential for children who come from illiterate or semi-literate homes and who have not been read to as a part of normal home activity....Point 5 is of less importance for children who come from a rich home environment but is a vital part of schooling for children who come from a disadvantaged background....
>
> What is important, it seems to me, is that any reading-readiness program focus on those particular points which the pupils need. It should never be a rigid mechanical program apart from such needs.

But even if a staff is generally agreed on these points, it is not to be expected that *specific* reading-readiness techniques either can or should be transferred *en bloc* from our way of applying them in English, to the teaching of dominant-X children to read in X. Ways of approaching literacy vary from language to language,[8] and the traditional techniques of competent X teachers in other countries should not be lightly dismissed even if at first blush they seem wrong to us. There may be strong connections between the means and the ends that are not immediately apparent. This is the kind of area in which one's faith in biculturalism gets tested. Further investigation may be in order, and exchanges of experiences will often be mutually enlightening; meanwhile the X-speaking teacher of X cannot be overridden with impunity.

We said earlier that reading should ordinarily be learned first in the dominant language.[9] This means that Spanish or French or Portuguese literacy would precede reading in English for children who speak these respective languages better. The acquisition of their second language, English, is discussed in another section.

Once the children have begun to read, it is just as important for them as for E-speakers to have high-quality materials to read. Selection should strike a balance between the best that exists elsewhere in this particular language, and the best written by immigrants or their descendants in this country, so that the scope and status of the language, both in the world at large and in their own nation, are faithfully represented to the children. Here, as in the dominant-E section, the possibilities for dovetailing with social studies should be exploited: if the literary quality at all allows, very local history and autobiography written in X, as well as locally-set imaginative literature in X, should be included in the curriculum. In all these areas special care must be taken not to give a lopsided picture which teaches the children that their dominant X is really only a language for another place or an earlier time. These subtle lessons, so deeply learned, are probably taught more by the kinds of readings we *expose* children to than by what we say about them.

It is perhaps appropriate to say here a few words about the use of memorization. Memorizing is the process of adding to one's personal store striking utterances and literary gems in prose or verse. Reciting to oneself or to others such remembered pieces or paraphrasing well-known passages can be a constant source of pleasure, both individual and social. The French poet André Spire has called this rolling of poetry on one's tongue a "muscular pleasure." In addition, it is of course an intellectual and esthetic pleasure, one which to our loss is more cultivated by other nations than by us. Having X-speaking children memorize and recite passages in X for their assembled parents is a good way to cement school-parent relations.

The role of the library should not be forgotten.

It should especially be kept in mind that in other parts of the world there are myriads of people whose entire education, indeed whose whole life, is carried on exclusively in the language of the children we are discussing here. The possibilities, therefore, of use, cultivation, and enjoyment of the language arts in these languages by bilingual American children are limited only by the children's own vision—a vision for which the school itself, as an agent of our society, is largely responsibile.

(2b) *Language Arts When Dominant X Is a More Local Language*

What we sweepingly call "more local languages" are not in reality a very homogeneous group at all.[10] Their chief characteristic in common, as far as language arts teaching is concerned, is that they are not like those we have been talking about above: full curricula using them as the exclusive medium of instruction are nowhere in existence, either here or abroad. The effect of this is that course planners have few and in some cases no extant models even to depart from.

Some of the languages have been written for a long time—well in a few cases, less well in others. Cherokee has a writing system dating back to the remarkable Sequoyah, and in the 1830's an estimated 90 percent of the Cherokee Nation were literate in their native tongue.[11] At the other extreme of this particular scale are the as yet unwritten languages. In between, Navajo, Hopi, and others are in various stages, with one or more systems of writing more or less generally agreed upon.

In such circumstances, that is, where dominant X is local, what are the legitimate aims for X language arts as taught to native X-speakers in a bilingual school? They probably include these:[12]

1) The children should first be introduced to reading, and in the language they know best.

2) Familiarity with indigenous literature should be encouraged. Although these languages have no great quantity of written literature, it might well be among the aims of a bilingual program to expand the children's knowledge of their language's oral literature, to provide the people with this same body of literature in print, and in general to encourage further production.

* * * * *

The Child's Second Language

What do we mean when we speak of teaching English? The average American, when he hears the term "English teacher," ponders very little over the fact that what we call "English teaching" is a super-structure built on a relatively solid oral control of this language. When we speak of teaching English in school, we usually mean either honing off the rough spots that could in some contexts work to our own disadvantage; or, more recently, trying to *add* a generally advantageous dialect to the one we talk and want to keep on talking at home and with friends.

This is dominant-language teaching in school. It is not at all the same thing as teaching someone who doesn't already speak the language in question. Learners of the latter type seem to fall into two easily distinguishable groups: the baby who doesn't yet speak any language;[13] and the learner of whatever age who is learning his *second* language.[14] But the truth of the matter is that nobody knows for sure whether these kinds of learners really *are* two groups—whether there are two radically different processes of language-learning, or simply minor differences in essentially one process. If there are two, we do not know where the line of demarcation between them is: Is it age (physical, psychological, or both)? Or is it something else?

"Teaching" a baby to talk is in some respects like "teaching" him to walk. It consists mainly in encouraging him as he tries to do these things, in a setting where they are done naturally by other people and not primarily for the purpose of serving as models for the baby. The child overhears language in virtually its full range, and he sees the mobility of those around him. Whether an awareness of the utility of talking and walking is somehow innate in him or whether it is commmunicated to him by his observations, we do not know.[15] In other words, we do not know whether consciously or unconsciously we "teach" babies to walk and to talk. What we do know is that they *begin to do them* under certain natural conditions.

Beyond that, agreement dwindles rapidly. People concerned with helping children or adults acquire a second language are handicapped by this fundamental uncertainty. In dealing with very young children the question is particularly puzzling, for while older people may perhaps be "taught" an intellectualized approximation of a second language, perhaps the brain of the young child can operate best with little or no interference, or consciousness of "teacher."

If the teacher concentrates the child's attention too much on the mechanics, structure, or patterns of his second language, she may have quite the wrong effect. One is reminded of the centipede who got along admirably until his teacher tried to teach him to analyze the order in which he put his feet down.

On the other hand, if the teacher is oblivious to possible interferences from the first language; if she fails to see that the relative order of certain learnings may help or hinder the child; if she is not aware that the range of language the child hears will be severely limited unless she purposely arranges otherwise—then she may not be teaching at all, and the child would perhaps learn just as much of the second language, just as fast and well, in the company of any other adult whom he liked as well and spent as much time with. Probably he would learn more, because the context would in most cases be less circumscribed than that of a schoolroom.

It surely must be clear that if organized education makes any sense at all—a hypothesis not always entirely beyond question—the best approach to second language teaching for very young children must be somewhere between these two extremes, and it must surely include "the ability to get the child sufficiently involved in significant activities (such as survival or play or the search for adult approval) where language is an unavoidable tool of access" (Bruce Gaarder).[16]

Literacy in a Second Language

What we have just been saying refers to getting a child to the point of being able to understand and talk his second language with fair competence. Reading it and writing it should follow this stage, not precede. As we suggested earlier, having learned to read in one's dominant language greatly facilitates learning to read in a second, particularly if the learner knows how to speak the second. The learner who goes through the sequence here recommended has already grasped the concept of sound-symbol relationship in his dominant tongue, and he has "learned how to learn from books" (Gaarder). Other features, such as left-to-rightness, may or may not transfer depending on the degree of similarity between the two writing systems. Sarah Gudschinsky, in connection with her previously quoted statement on reading-readiness, cites the following features as they apply to second-language reading:

> *Points 3 and 4 [visual skills and manual skills] are vital prerequisites for the first reading experience, but do not have to be repeated for a second language. Point 2 [audiolingual skills] may indeed, however, be as necessary for a second language as for a first one. In effect, for the second language, it would be a matter of learning to recognize and reproduce the phonemes of that language....[Point 5, development of control of the structure and sufficient vocabulary to read with understanding, is] obviously the essential part of a readiness program for children who are about to learn to read a language which they do not yet speak adequately.*

3. *Language Arts, E for Dominant-X Children*

The following description of an English language arts program for Alaska natives, written by Lee M. Salisbury of the University of Alaska, illustrates how many things *can* go wrong.

> *By the time the native child reaches the age of seven, his cultural and language patterns have been set, and his parents are required by law to send him to school. Until this time he is likely to speak only his own local dialect of Indian, Aleut, or Eskimo or, if his parents have had some formal schooling, he may speak a kind of halting English.*
>
> *He now enters a completely foreign setting—a Western classroom. His teacher is likely to be a Caucasian who knows little or nothing about his*

> *cultural background. He is taught to read the* Dick and Jane *series. Many things confuse him: Dick and Jane are two* gussuk* *[Eskimo term for "white person." Derived from the Russian Cossack.] children who play together. Yet, he knows that boys and girls do not play together and do not share toys. They have a dog named Spot who comes indoors and does not work. They have a father who leaves for some mysterious place called "office" each day and never brings any food home with him. He drives a machine called an automobile on a hard-covered road called a street which has a policeman on each corner. These policemen always smile, wear funny clothing, and spend their time helping children to cross the street. Why do these children need this help? Dick and Jane's mother spends a lot of time in the kitchen cooking a strange food called "cookies" on a stove which has no flame in it, but the most bewildering part is yet to come. One day they drive out to the country, which is a place where Dick and Jane's grandparents are kept. They do not live with the family and they are so glad to see Dick and Jane that one is certain that they have been ostricized from the rest of the family for some terrible reason. The old people live on something called a "farm" which is a place where many strange animals are kept: a peculiar beast called a "cow," some odd-looking birds called "chickens," and a "horse" which looks like a deformed moose....*
>
> *So it is not surprising that 60 percent of the native youngsters never reach the eighth grade.*[17]

Even after the dominant-X children learn to speak the sounds of English and to read aloud from a written page, the course will still be inadequate if it is unicultural to this extreme. In this case, it has the further disadvantage of being trivial. Why should anyone want to read this kind of thing even once, let alone the number of times a beginner usually goes over his primer, in his second language or in his first? Anything that we oblige a child to repeat almost to the point of memorization should be intrinsically *worth* being memorized. Otherwise we may waste his time at the same time that we dull his mind. A third shortcoming in the program described by Salisbury is that–in Alaska as elsewhere–it is rarely supplemented or offset by any language arts course at all in the child's native X. The school fails.

Parents also fail, sometimes under pressure from the school, as the following experience of Sarah Gudschinsky illustrates:

> *I have seen Mazatec [Amerindian language of Mexico] children in a Mazatec village who were forbidden by their parents to speak and to force their children to use only Spanish in all contacts. Where the parental edict has been strong enough, the children fail to learn enough Mazatec to function successfully in a Mazatec environment. However, they do not have enough Spanish contact to learn an effective control of Spanish. The result is a lack of useful language sufficient, probably, to stunt all intellectual growth....If our attempts to force non-English speakers to abandon their mother tongue were more efficient, it would be in danger of producing an increasing population that could not use effectively any language.*

English as a second language is a complex and growing field, and any teacher or administrator of children who study English as their weaker language should keep himself informed of developments. TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) is a relatively young but already very active organization and is an excellent source of information. The Center for Applied Linguistics is another valuable source of ESL information and publications.[18] A third is the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), whose booklet called *Language and Language Learning* (Albert H. Marckwardt, ed.) makes fine reading in this field for expert and beginner alike.

4. *Language Arts, X for Dominant–E Children*

The chief American resources in this area are the MLA (Modern Language Association of America), the various associations of teachers of specific languages (American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, of French, etc.) and especially the new ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.)[19] Traditionally the MLA has been oriented toward European languages, but both MLA and ACTFL now have broader scopes. Still, the stress of most professional language-teaching organizations has so far been on teaching in situations where there is little or no interaction with American native-speakers of the languages concerned. Bruce Gaarder speaks of the striking disparity between the "little academic world of foreign language teacher bilingualism" in the United States and the "great world of Spanish-speaking children in our schools, many of whom are disadvantaged precisely because of school policies which give no role to their mother tongue in their education."[20] While academia is awakening to the existence of this gap, the X-teacher would do well tokeep up also with TESOL developments in his search for workable approaches, though the societal contexts are obviously not identical for E and for X as second languages in the United States.

Whatever language the specific X may be, in a program that hopes for BEA support the community and the school have by definition a certain concentration of speakers of that language very near at hand. Except in the few cases where an X population has very recently immigrated *en masse* to this country (e.g., the influx of Portuguese-speakers from the Azores and Cape Verde Islands to the Providence-New Bedford-Fall River area), these children and their language can hardly be called "foreign." The significance of this is that the language in no case ought to be *treated* as foreign, isolated in the classroom. It should be accepted clearly for what it is: a language that known, visible, and audible people live in, people that can be talked to, played with, and worked with. "Foreign" language teachers in the past have rarely made use of live resources in their own communities, and this undoubtedly has been a major factor in the languages' having remained *foreign*.

Objectives in second-language language arts will be affected by the status (in Mackey's sense) of the particular X. If it is a language of wider communication, there are virtually no upper limits to what one can aspire to. Children who acquire these as second languages can further their studies of them through university levels here or abroad and can cultivate their bilingual taste for language arts throughout their lives.

If X is a local language, objectives will stress other kinds of values. E-speaking learners should still give first priority to the spoken language, then literacy, and so on from there. The order is important. Again there are no upper limits to what can be done in language arts as far as the oral language is concerned; written limitations will depend on the language itself, that is, on its stage of development in this dimension.

Finally, we would like to underline the *arts* of language arts, whether in English or in X. "Too often, I fear, the teacher's tenuous control of the classroom situation must be attributed to his assuming the role of language policeman" (Ross J. Waddell). His task should be rather to show that in every language *bien parler c'est se respecter* –there is the ideal of speaking or writing well; and the achievement of that ideal brings with it self-respect.

B. Social Studies

Each of us has his own little private conviction of rightness, and almost by definition the Utopian condition of which we all dream is that in which all people finally see the error of their ways and agree with us.

And underlying pratically all our attempts to bring agreement is the assumption that agreement is brought about by changing people's minds–other people's.

–S. I. Hayakawa[21]

Given the temper of our times, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that social studies in the United States have not in the past accorded much dignitv to diversity. Somehow we need to learn to see differences in a better light.[22]

The most important decision of all for social studies in a bilingual program is whether the course is to be bicultural or unicultural in content and perspective. If one goes the unicultural route, however many languages he uses, he appears to the authors to be headed for trouble. If the one cultural base being used in this subject is E, as in types 1, 4, and 7, the teacher fails to give the X-speakers's X culture its due,with the likely result that the learner will be either alienated, hostile, or defeated. If the unicultural base in social studies is X, as in types 2, 5, and 8, there is the possibility of setting up a polarization in the learner, especially if he is still very young. When he is older it may matter less.

The bicultural treatment (types 3, 6, and 9) seems by all odds to offer the better possibility in this sensitive subject area,[23] both for E-speakers and for X-speakers. Once this choice has been made, decisions about language (2) of instruction can be made on other grounds: the relative qualifications of teachers available, the overall balance one wishes to strike between the two languages, etc.

Along with language itself, this subject matter is one of the two most crucial for the success of a bilingual program. And unless the X-speakers of the community have for some reason consciously and resolutely turned their backs on their own past, as some Jewish Germans did on German culture after Hitler, a bilingual program that is not bicultural in social studies runs a very serious risk of failing.

It has been said that the hardest problem is this: how to give positive reinforcement to children without giving positive reinforcement to wrong answers.[24] Presumably this problem can only be solved when the whole society—or at least the school—can guilelessly convince the child that what is in question does not touch his own value as a person, nor the value of his family, his language, or his culture. Only then can he fully apply his mind to the questions that face us all.

Where to find materials for this bicultural or multicultural approach is another matter. Solutions here are needed desperately and now, and the broadened viewpoints that social science can offer should affect every subject in the school curriculum.

C. *Science and Mathematics*

Increasingly, science and mathematics are becoming international in content. Specialists at the top of these fields, perhaps more than any others, share symbolic systems that to a certain extent communicate across languages. Advances are being made rapidly and it is quite clear that no national, ethnic, or linguistic group can feel it has a monopoly on the potential for breakthroughs.

At the same time, there is some evidence that school children of certain linguistic and/or ethnic backgrounds tend to perform better in these school subjects than other children do. An international study measuring school performance in mathematics seemed to show that young Japanese children perform unusually well.[25] Another investigation, which compared both verbal and spatial abilities of three ethnic groups in New York, showed a spatial superiority for the Chinese over the other two groups tested.[26] Whether these differences are inherent in linguistic or other cultural factors, or whether they are purely accidental or the products of different methodologies in teaching, no one seems yet to know.

With this question still unanswered, certainly planners will want to select the best methodology and materials they can find; and if a choice has to be made of one language in which to teach these subjects, the language with the best materials may be the determining factor. This could result in a program of either type 1 or type 5; for example, for the French-speakers of New England, either a United States mathematics course (type 1) or a course from France (type 5), depending on which course the planners judge to be better in itself.

Another procedure is the one used in mathematics by the Toronto French school;[27] that is, dividing the time allotted to mathematics, and teaching type 1 *plus* type 5, or in effect treating it as *two* subjects: English mathematics and French mathematics. The children are taught both the Nuffield program in English and the Dienes program in French. Tested by the Metropolitan Achievement Tests (through English only), these children showed mean grade equivalents for every grade (1-6) at least one full year beyond grade level, both in arithmetic and in problem-solving.

Although the use of this combination pattern might not produce such spectacular results in schools whose children were not middle-class and highly motivated, both the fact of the accomplishment and the program-types involved are provocative. The two courses selected differ in philosophy or methodology. "It is suspected that the Dienes approach provides greater depth and perhaps rigidity and the Nuffield perhaps greater flexibility, but some real shallowness as well...."[28] Thus the two complement each other, offering the child the variety of avenues he may need, whereas "the use of a single type of learning experience to teach a concept is likely to produce a learning block, according to Bruner and Dienes." [29]

This is the essence of bilingual-bicultural education: not to block the child's learning by accidental limits imposed by any one culture or its language. All those enrolled in the Toronto French School take both mathematics programs, and the combination "works well for both the bright and the slow children."[30]

Problem: Is it the combination of methods that accounts for this success, or is it the combination of language-culture complexes?

Answer: Unknown.

But some tenuous light may be shed on the problem just cited by Bertha Treviño's study[31] of third graders at Nye Elementary School, United Consolidated Independent School District outside Laredo. Here the program pattern was type 7: English mathematics materials were translated into Spanish, and all children were taught this unicultural material through both mediums. Comparison was made with achievement at the same level the year *before*, when the same materials were taught to all in English only. The total amount of time allotted to mathematics was constant. In all cases—that is, for both X-speakers and E-speakers—children bilingually taught performed better than those who had been taught unilingually. This does not mean that they knew the same things as before, but now in two languages; it means they knew *more*. There was a bonus that came from somewhere: 2+2 equaled 5.

The experiences at Toronto and at Nye lead one to hypothesize that either two languages, or two different approaches to learning, can offer alternatives the child can profit from. When he is given both kinds of alternatives the potential for benefits increases accordingly.

Bicultural content is not a term that seems to have the same kind of meaning in mathematics and science as in social studies, language, or art. As we said at the beginning of this section, the deep content in mathematics and science seems to be headed for internationalism. On the surface, though, and especially with little children, differences do matter in that the practical application of problems and experiments needs to be attuned to the life the child finds around him. Casting an arithmetic problem in terms of bushels of tomatoes as opposed to bushels of mangos is not a cultural question of arithmetic *content*; it is simply an appropriate clothing to make the problem seem real. The answer should come out the same for tomatoes and for mangos. Yet we should beware of assuming that such surface differences are the only ones that might affect the learner. The Navajo understanding of the physical world is quite different from the Western European scientific tradition (which itself is not terribly old), Navajo means of classification are different, and spatial relations are differently conceived. The sensible approach seems to be to have the child learn both "sciences" side by side. Whatever our opinions of this idea or that in either system, both are a part of the history of science; and there have been cases of former "scientific" notions believed to be long dead that have proved instead to be insights into a deeper truth.

D. *Art and Music*

In the approach one should take toward art and music in a bilingual school, the first order of priority is to be sure that they are taught by people who love and feel the subjects. That there are different styles associated with different cultures is certain. But a really good teacher of either art or music is quite apt to be multicultural in his tastes already, even before the question of bilingual schooling arises. This is the kind of teacher that should be sought, even at considerable cost in effort and money. Whether the planners feel that for overall balance the need is for an X-speaker, an E-speaker, or a bilingual is a matter of secondary importance for these subjects.

Art and music are the areas in which we have perhaps achieved greatest intercultural tolerance. Talented and attractive teachers in these subjects can help transform tolerance into understanding, and from there open the possibility of multicultural appreciation.

E. *Health and Physical Education*

Most Americans are inclined to think that their ideas about health and physical education are scientifically based, and that the objective in these school subjects is to build good habits that will keep our children healthier throughout their lives. We give very little thought to the cultural biases woven into the fabric of our notions about good habits. Some cultures hold that eating raw vegetables is harmful; most American school dieticians think it is virtually essential. Some people believe bathing every day is bad for the skin; others consider it at least socially desirable, and probably healthy as well.

The fact is that many of the "good habits" we recommend to our children are not based on definite knowledge at all, but on our own culture's opinions–as of now. The rapidity with which science is changing the answers in our textbooks should give us more pause than it does, should make us leave more room for different views on the part of others around us today as well as room to change our own views gracefully tomorrow, if need be. One framework for this roomleaving seems to be to present more of those things we wish to inculcate in our young as our *opinions* or our *best judgment*. Children will learn just as well, and both they and their erstwhile mentors will be spared if what we thought was The Truth is later discovered to be erroneous. Remember thalidomide?

This approach could well be used in health, in our discussions of the human body, its needs, and its care. Similar latitude would not be amiss in the area of physical education. Children of different cultural backgrounds may have culturally-based feelings about participating in certain kinds of games. We saw above[32] that small Eskimo boys and girls are unaccustomed to playing together. Certain kinds of dance are approved by some cultures and disapproved by others. It makes little sense for us to say whether it is "better" for children to follow one pattern or the other in these respects, and it is possible to do real harm by obliging children to violate their cultural patterns.

On the positive side, especially in physical education, there are the riches of variety that can derive from taking into account two or more cultures' conceptions of play and their ideals of physical prowess.

Two special areas offer the physical education teacher opportunities to contribute in important ways to a bilingual-bicultural program: role-playing and kinesics. Kinesics has recently been discovered by second-language teachers as a powerful reinforcement to verbal learning.[33] Children whose classroom use of a second language is supplemented by kinetic association on the playground will have their learning greatly reinforced in the process. A child who experiences "Run! Jump! It's my turn to bat!" in the real world knows the meaning of these words in a way the schoolroom can usually only suggest. This argues for playground use, either mixed or at successive times, of both languages the child is attempting to control. If the E- and X-speakers are of about equal numbers, a mixture of the languages with one bilingual teacher is quite feasible and life-like. If the groups are of very unequal size, the majority language is likely to take over. In this case, it may be better to have two "unilingual" teachers alternate, so that an adult's weight is added now to one language, now to the other. If kinesics is to be fully exploited for the purposes described, the language arts teacher and the physical education teacher should be aware of each other's programs and of the help each can draw from the other.

Role-playing is a device that has been suggested as one possible way of handling some of the conflicts that arise in the minds of children faced with two cultures and their respective value systems. One example might be the conflicting attitudes toward competition between relatives or close friends as seen in Hispanic culture when compared with Anglo. Anglo-style games, played only in English, may be used to illustrate how brothers and friends can compete fiercely with each other in a way accepted and even postively enjoyed by all. Hispanic games, played in Spanish, can point up the value of alliance with brother or friend, the precedence these relationships take over the need of an individual to win. One way to bridge the gap is to have a bilingual teacher who can serve in this world of play as a model of biculturalism, acting now one part and now the other as the several games require, while all the children see. Children who are reluctant to join games they sense are antagonistic to their cultural style should not be forced or over-encouraged until they are ready. But the teacher who is able to participate in both kinds of games without losing his essential identity and integrity is a living lesson in how two cultures can combine in one human without the betrayal of one's self.

F. *Coda*

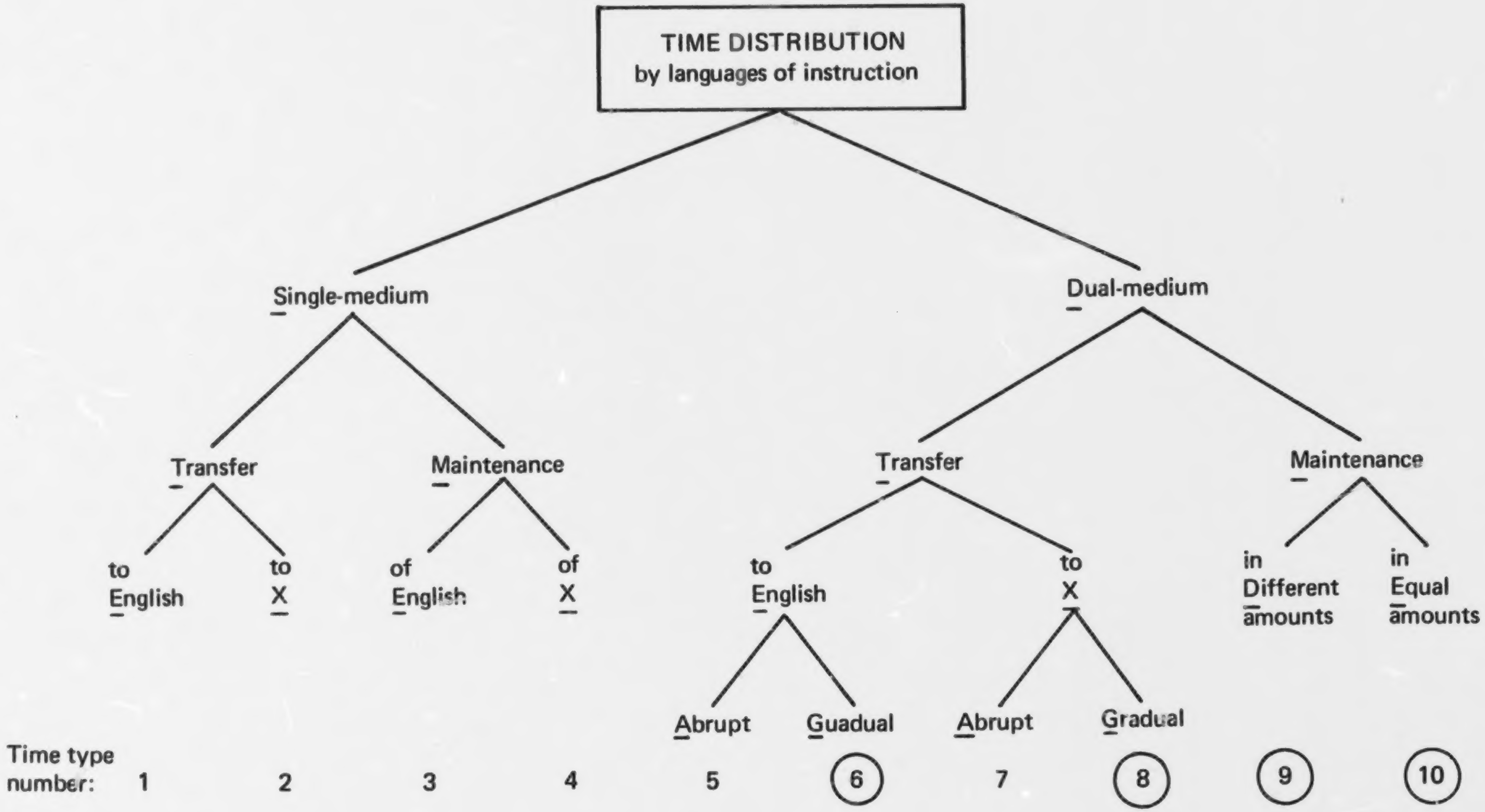
The traditional "subjects" of the elementary school curriculum are purely theoretical in their separateness one from the other. Life is not divided into these discrete compartments; nor is reality; nor are the children that bilingual schooling is meant to serve. If every teacher would make the effort to understand what his fellow-workers are about, and to fit his own specialization into the whole, multiculturalism could begin where it should: at home.

II. *Time*

The preceding section, on Content, has been an attempt to see each subject area separately in its dual relationship to language of instruction and to cultural focus. This section will deal with the instructional program as a whole, with respect to the amount of time allotted to each language.

William F. Mackey's "A Typology of Bilingual Education," which he has generously allowed us to append here *in toto* in its first published form,[34] analyzes the multiple relationships that may occur when one views the school in the contexts of the child's home and family, the community or immediate area, and the nation. The possible combinations are about 250, "Ranging from the unilingual education of bilingual children in unilingual communities to the bilingual education of unilingual children in bilingual communities."

Within this complex, Mackey identifies ten types of "curriculum patterns" or what we prefer to call patterns of school time (reserving the term curriculum to refer to content or subject matter). Mackey's orientation is international. If we apply his thinking to the United States alone, the patterns may be illustrated as follows:[35]


TIME DISTRIBUTION
by languages of instruction
Single-medium
Dual-medium
Transfer
Maintenance
Transfer
Maintenance
to English
to X
of English
of X
to English
to X
in Different amounts
in Equal amounts
Abrupt
Guadual
Abrupt
Gradual
Time type number:
1
2
3
4
5
⑥
7
⑧
⑨
⑩

It should be clearly understood that we are focusing now on the *entire school program* of a year or any other unit, such as primary grades. The discussion here does not refer to the language of *single* subject-matters, whose various possible patterns we treated above, in our section on Content.

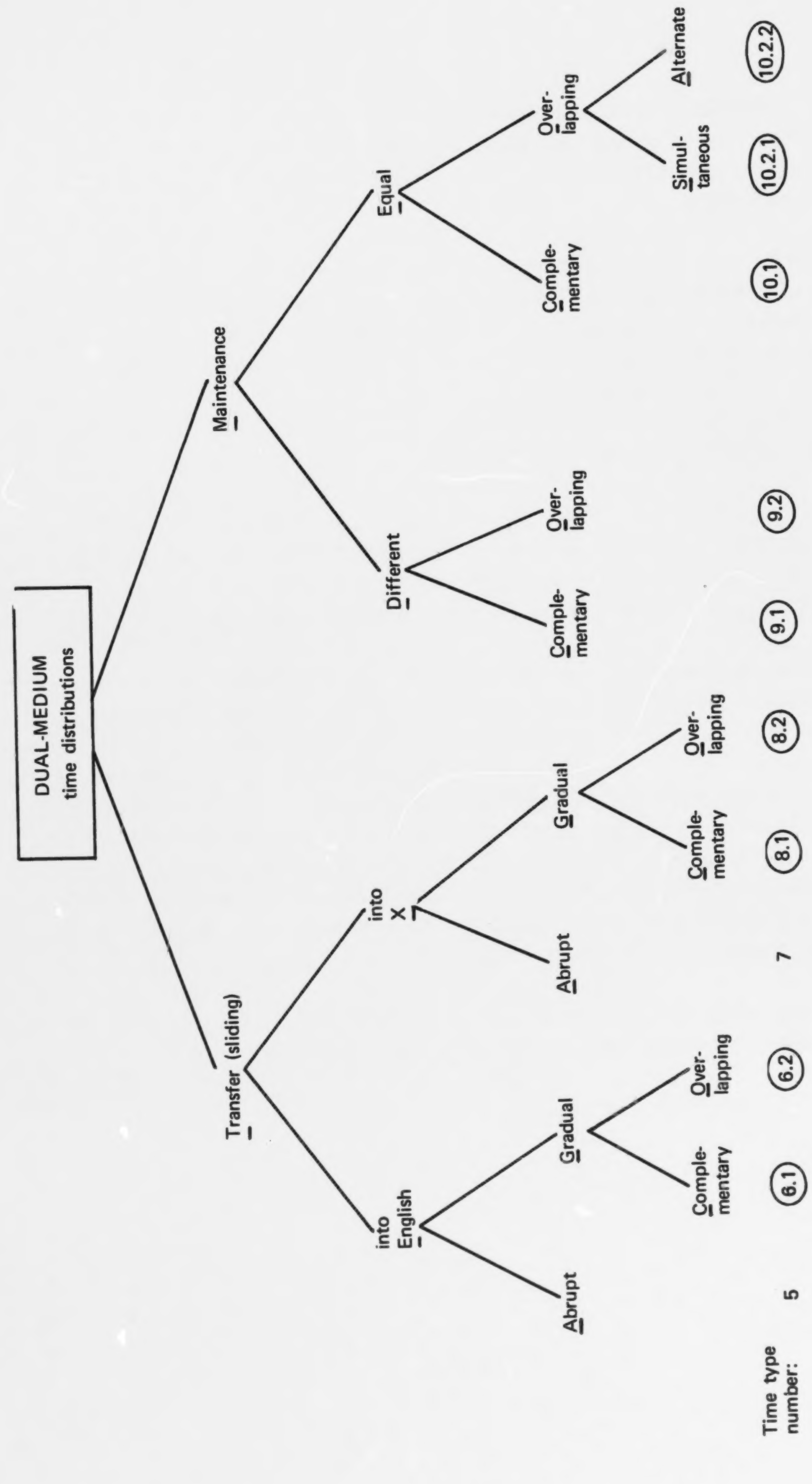
Of the ten patterns just delineated, only the four that are circled appear to be fundable under the BEA and its Guidelines as they now stand. It will perhaps be well to explain our reasoning at this point because: 1) our interpretation is in no sense official; and 2) both the Guidelines and the Act are presumably subject to change through normal channels.

Types 1-4 are unilingual; they are therefore not fundable because the Guidelines specify that instruction must be in two languages.

Types 5 and 7, by virtue of the abruptness of their shift from one language to the other, are not fundable because at no particular point do they use both languages for instruction. For example, a program altogether in X in grades K-2, if it then shifts abruptly and totally to English, does not seem to meet the Guidelines' requirement at any grade level.

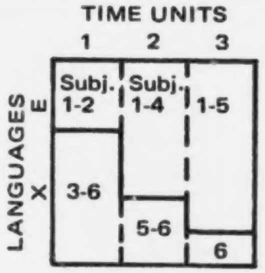
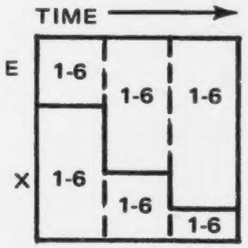
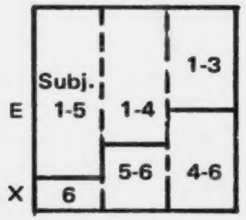
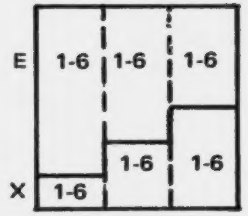
This leaves us with four basic patterns that could be funded: nos. 6, 8, 9, and 10. Each type represents not a fixed, absolute distribution of time but a *way* of distributing, so that the characteristics stylized here can differ in degree on being fitted to an actual school setting. They can also differ somewhat in form, for, within each of the patterns we believe are fundable, some subjects may be taught in one language and some in another (Complementary); or some or all may be taught in both languages to the same child (Overlapping), as we saw in our drawing on subject-matter treatment.[36] If there is overlap, it may take the form of using both languages for a subject during two periods of the same day (Simultaneous); or the whole course–say mathematics–may be taught in X for a certain period of time, followed by a period in E, and X again, and so on (Alternating).

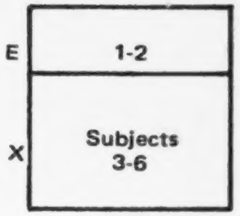
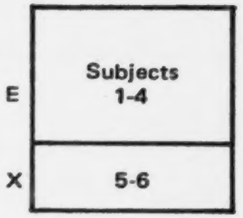
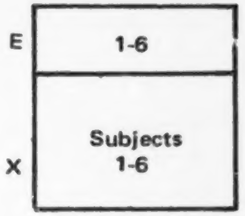
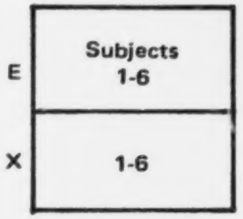
Expanding the dual-medium section of the time distribution drawing, we can show these further distinctions. Then we will give an example of each.

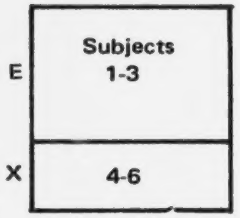
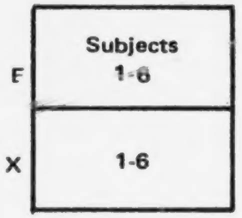
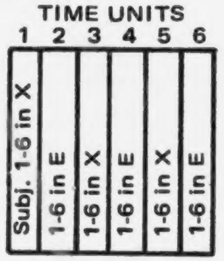

DUAL-MEDIUM
time distributions
Transfer (sliding)
Maintenance
into English
into X
Different
Equal
Abrupt
Gradual
Abrupt
Gradual
Complementary
Overlapping
Complementary
Overlapping
Complementary
Overlapping
Complementary
Overlapping
Simultaneous
Alternate
Time type number:
5
6.1
6.2
7
8.1
8.2
9.1
9.2
10.1
10.2.1
10.2.2

EXAMPLE OF
BILINGUAL PROGRAM TYPES

CURRENTLY FUNDABLE
UNDER BEA

Description	For X-speakers	For X-Speakers, E-Speakers, or Both	Limitations on Funding
Dual-medium gradual transfer to English: 6.1 - Complementary distribution of subjects between languages E (English) and X (other). 6.2 - Overlapping distribution of subjects in E and X.	 TIME UNITS 1 2 3 LANGUAGES E X Subj. 1-2 Subj. 1-4 1-5 3-6 5-6 6  TIME E X 1-6 1-6 1-6 1-6 1-6 1-6		BEA funding ends when instruction through X ends. Number of subjects in each language and *rate* of transfer are illustrative only.
Dual-medium gradual transfer to X: 8.1 - Complementary distribution of subjects between E and X. 8.2 - Overlapping distribution of subjects in E and X.		 E X Subj. 1-5 1-4 1-3 6 5-6 4-6  E X 1-6 1-6 1-6 1-6 1-6 1-6	Maximum fundable amount of X on an *increasing* basis is presumably 50%. Number of subjects in each language and rate of transfer are illustrative only.

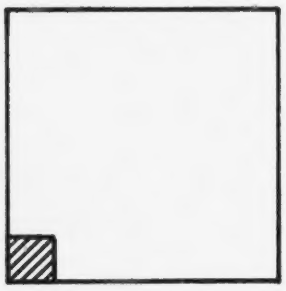
Description	X-Speakers	X-Speakers, E-Speakers, or Both.	Limitations
Dual-medium maintenance of both X and E, in different amounts of time:			Maximum X for *X-speakers*, up to but not including 100 percent, probably expected to decrease later to maximum of 50; maximum X for *E-Speakers,* up to 50 percent. Portions of time shown in these 4 examples are illustrative only, but are *unequal.* See also types 10.1, 10.2.1, and 10.2.2 below, in which *equal* time is allowed for each language.
9.1 - Complementary distribution of subjects in E and X.	 E 1-2 X Subjects 3-6	 E Subjects 1-4 X 5-6	
9.2 - Overlapping distribution of subjects in E and X.	 E 1-6 X Subjects 1-6	 E Subjects 1-6 X 1-6	

Description	X-Speakers	X-Speakers, E-Speakers, or Both.	Limitations
Dual-medium maintenance of both E and X, in equal amounts of time:			
10.1 - Complementary distribution of subjects in E and X.		 E X Subjects 1-3 4-6	
10.2 - Overlapping distribution of subjects in E and X.			
10.2.1 - Simultaneous timing.		 E X Subjects 1-6 1-6	A variation on type 10.2.1 is what is known as "mixed" use of both languages in all subjects, throughout the day. We may call this 10.2.1a: E X E X E X X E X E X E E X E X E X X E X E X E E X E X E X X E X E X E
10.22 - Alternate time units entirely in E, then X, etc. (e.g., by month, semester, year).		 TIME UNITS 1 2 3 4 5 6 Subj. 1-6 in X 1-6 in E 1-6 in X 1-6 in E 1-6 in X 1-6 in E	Length of alternating time units in 10.2.2 is not fixed by Act or Guidelines but presumably must be short enough to avoid confusion of this type with unilingual schooling.

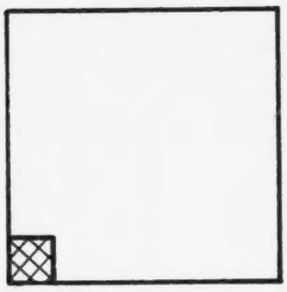
As we have indicated, all the blocks shown above are abstractions. They may represent entire school programs, or they may be conceived as segments that can be combined in various orders and for varying periods of time. One block may be appropriate for all or part of the X-speaking children while at the same point in time another type is better suited to the educational needs of E-speakers in various stages of advancement toward bilingualism. For this reason the school may wish to design two or more tracks that move in the direction of merging. An example of such a design is Bruce Gaarder's much more detailed chart showing the time distribution pattern of Coral Way Elementary School. (See reproduction of this chart.[37])

Programs for X-Speaking Children

Again we refer our reader to Mackey's typology, especially to section 1 and 3, on "The Learner in the Home" and "The Community in the Nation." Of the five types of learners identified there, the prime beneficiaries of the BEA are:



Unilingual X-speakers



Bilinguals (in X and E, to whatever extent, but especially if X is dominant)

Yet not only American *children*, but also American communities or regions may be described as either essentially unilingual (in E), or more or less bilingual in E and X. Although there are other possibilities, there are the most common ones in our country today.

The kind and degree of language reinforcement which each child receives in the normal course of his life at home and in the community should figure heavily in determining how his school program can most fruitfully be distributed between English and X. Yet in introducing the dimensions of home and community, we cannot fail to stress that, if at all possible, program decisions should be made on educational, not political, grounds.

Two of the educational factors that should be given especially careful consideration are:

(1) the child's linguistic past–his readiness to receive the education he needs, through the medium of X, or E, or of both; and

(2) the child's context–the social and psychological impact that he can be expected to experience as a result of the particular school program in which he is placed.

The widely differing backgrounds of our X-speaking children give very different meaning to these two factors as they apply to different individuals and groups. There are immigrant children and children whose forbears have been here for centuries; there are urban children and rural children and migrant children; children of parents with proud educated heritages and children to whose ancestors books have been virtually unknown for generations; there are Eskimos in tiny villages, and French-speaking blacks in Louisiana, and Basque sheepherders scattered across the wide expanses of the West; there are the millions of Spanish-speakers of the Southwest, Florida, and New York, and the 267 Supai Indians who live on the floor of the Grand Canyon. It would be idle for us to try to determine here the exact formulas that would fit all these cases, but every X-speaking child has both background and surroundings. They cannot reasonably be ignored.

* * * * *

It may nonetheless be useful to elaborate on some situations in which various combinations might be put into operation. What follows is set forth in that spirit, and it should not be construed as in any way prescriptive.

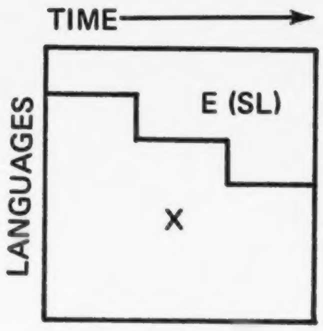


Fig. 1 (Type 6)

In this sketch, X is the child's stronger language—for example, Spanish or Navajo—and English is his second language. The figure shows how one group of planners might propose to arrange the first stage of this child's formal schooling. How long this portion should last is not indicated. Let us imagine that we are thinking of Nursery (N) or Kindergarten (K) through grade 3. The program shown here emphasizes the child's need first to establish himself firmly in school in his own language, X. It assumes that it would be to the child's advantage to spend the major portion of his early schooling in X. But E is gradually introduced and increased, for it is the language which in the long run will carry at least half the instructional load in his education. *How* E and X are to be used has been spoken of in our section on Content. Now we are concerned with the *how much*.

The beginning shown in Fig. 1 might be followed by any one of various programs, again depending on what is judged to be in the children's best interest. So, for example, children of Cuban or Puerto Rican families who now live in a bilingual-bicultural community in the United

States might profitably carry on the use of each language halftime through the elementary or secondary schools (Fig 2). Here the second block would represent, say grades 4-6 (or 8 or 12). This combination is roughly the time distribution of the Coral Way Elementary School in Miami, and the goal of the Bilingual School in New York City.[38]

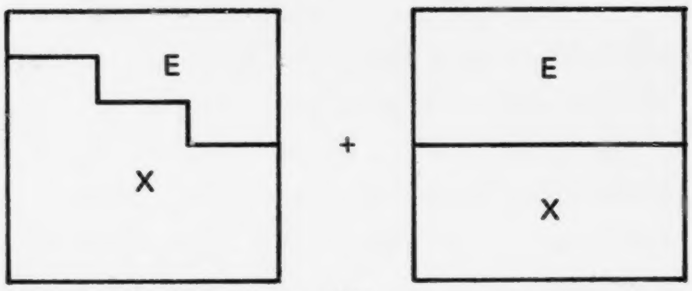


Fig. 2 (Type 6 plus Type 10)

A second kind of follow-up might be used in an area where the accident of birthplace has made literacy in X locally less strong. The loss of vigor in the literate tradition has in most cases been the direct result of our unilingualizing school policies, which have too often turned bilingualism into a personal liability; for example, among the Franco-Americans in parts of New England, or for the Spanish-speaking in parts of the Southwest. Although there are a few communities in these same areas that remain strong, that prefer and are following the pattern already described, others might choose to, or have to, aim at a program like this:

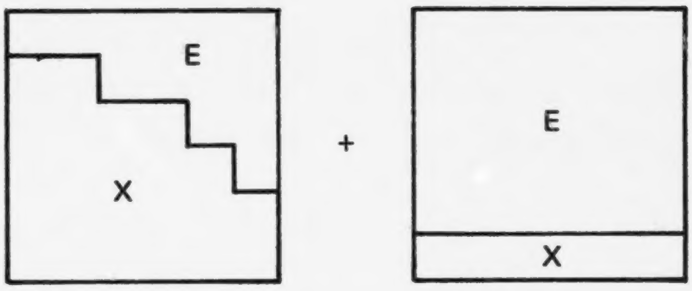


Fig. 3 (Type 6 plus Type 9)

Such a choice might not actually reflect the community's preference about the relative time given to each language. It might be based merely on inability to do more because of inadequate staff or materials, for example. If such is the case, a modest start might be in order while the necessary further provisions are being made. Then the school could move into fuller use of X, as in Fig. 2.

A third follow-up can be conceived for still other cases. In these situations, for one reason or another a total transfer to E is thought to be best or necessary for the X children. If, for example, educational materials are non-existent in X and none are foreseeable in the future (Supai might be an example.) Or if unexpected historical events place the schools in situations that require crash programs for short periods until provisions can be made for fuller use of X in the education of X-speakers.[39] Or if the X-speaking people themselves resolutely determine to have their children transfer totally into unilingual schooling in E. They have this right, and Fig. 4 shows a means to such an end. BEA funding would presumably cease at the asterisk (*) in any of these cases.

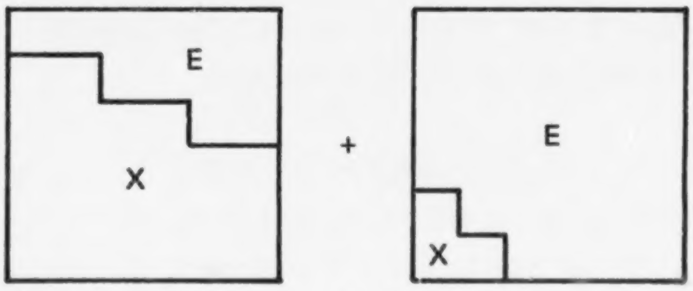


Fig. 4 (Type 6 plus Type 6)

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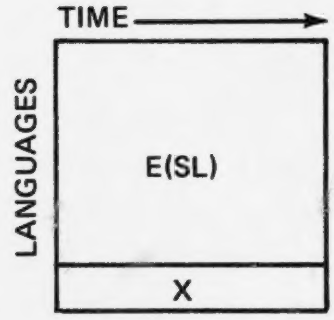
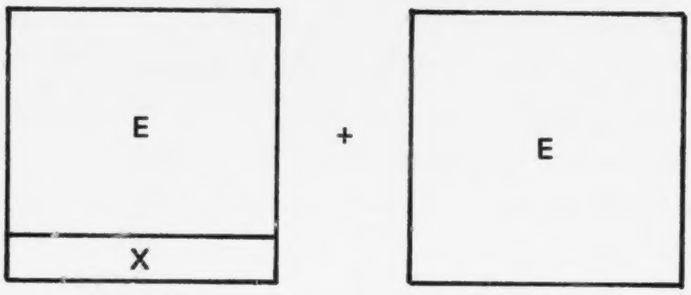


Fig. 5 (Type 9)

An entirely different approach is represented by programs *beginning* as in Fig. 5. Unlike Fig. 1, Fig. 5 stresses the importance, at this stage, of virtual immersion of the child in his second language (here English); it also minimizes his need for school use of X. This approach is supported by some who feel it is in the child's best interest to capitalize while he can on the ability to acquire another tongue with native-like pronunciation: an ability belonging almost exclusively to the very young. But Fig. 5 will also appeal to those whose aim is to delete X eventually altogether.

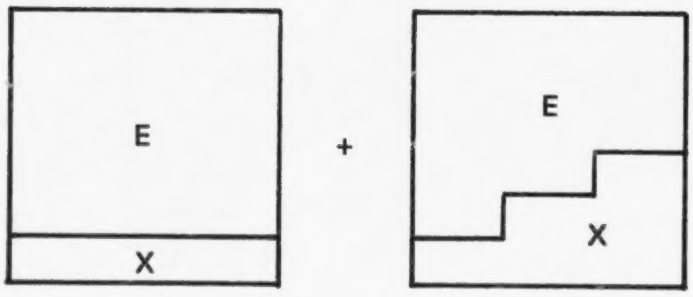
Depending on one's philosophy, therefore, or upon one's assessment of the relative importance of the several needs of children in a specific community, proposed follow-ups to Fig. 5 may range all the way from total use of E (Fig. 6) to greater use of X (Fig. 7)—possibly up to 50 percent.

Fig. 6



(Type 9) (not fundable)

Fig. 7



(Type 9) (Type 8)

Again the choice should be made in consideration of what promises most for the children's total good, both in childhood and in the years beyond.

* * * * *

A middle ground between the two beginnings shown (in Fig. 1 and Fig. 5) is any one of the forms of Type 10, where each language is given half of the school time from the start (Fig. 8). Many communities find this the most convenient way of recognizing both *language* needs and *psychological or social* needs. If this balance is truly in keeping with the requirements of the children and is not merely an administrative convenience, it may indeed be ideal. It certainly appears to be the easiest to schedule; but it involves some hard decisions about distributing subjects between the two languages or teaching them all in both.

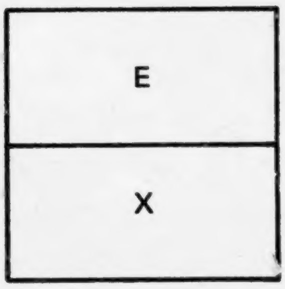


Fig. 8 (Type 10)

Programs for Children Whose Dominant Language Is English

"In an area eligible for a Title VII project, children from environments where the dominant language is English are eligible to participate when their participation is such as to enhance the effectiveness of the program." So say the Guidelines of the BEA. But even before this provision was made, a number of communities had seen the desirability of bilingual schooling for E-speaking children as well as for those dominant in X. Though E-speakers have usually not had the language-centered learning difficulties that plague many X-speakers,[40] other reasons for advocating bilingual education abound. It is a happy circumstance indeed that the BEA provides the means of encouraging programs whose benefits may be expected to redound in two directions, both to and from each group in a bilingual community. The authors would recommend that future revisions of the BEA lend greater support to programs where two-way efforts at bilingualism and biculturalism are among the highest aims.

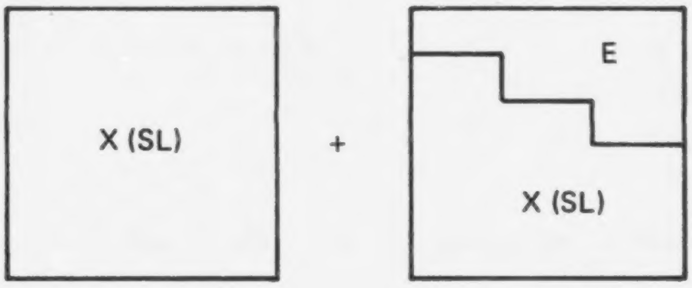
Meanwhile, highly suggestive for planners are programs for E-speakers going even as far as this:

Fig. 9 (not fundable)

Here X is a second language for the children but is used exclusively for the entire first stage. An example, though not in this country, is the St. Lambert School near the bilingual city of

Montreal, a public elementary school where middle-class E-speaking children are taught entirely in French in K and grade 1. Thereafter, E is added and gradually increased toward half (as in Fig. 1, except that now X is the second language, not E).[41]

Fig. 10



(not fundable) (not fundable)

Fundable patterns of X for E-speakers in bilingual areas range all the way from the type shown in Fig. 11 to a minimum as shown in Fig. 12.

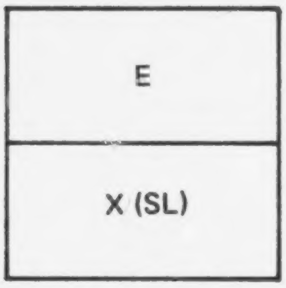


Fig. 11 (Type 10)

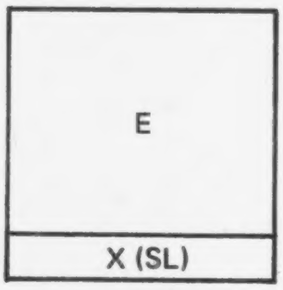


Fig. 12 (Type 9)

Planners should be conscious of the problems that beset an XSL program of the limited dimensions shown in Fig. 12. Witness the average FLES (foreign language in the elementary school) program or the typical high school "foreign language" course, where X is so frequently treated in a vacuum. The direct and indirect benefits of XSL depend primarily on interaction with X-speaking peers. Without them, XSL tends to become academic (in the worst sense of the word). The smaller the amount of school time devoted to XSL, the more academic it usually becomes.

* * * * *

Programs designed for E-speaking children need not, of course, exactly parallel those for speakers of X. But if a community is seriously interested in educating children from *both* home backgrounds bilingually, the authors strongly recommend that the E group begin X(SL) from the very beginning of school and that instruction in X be made available (not obligatory) throughout the entire school program. Seemingly the optimum distribution for E children is that used at Coral Way School (Fig. 13), with this program extending throughout the school (grades 1-6). This is the full counterpart of the program of the Spanish-speaking children in that school, as seen in Fig. 2 above.

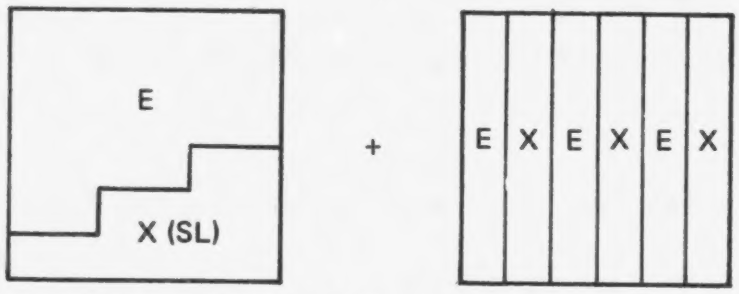


Fig. 13 (Type 8 plus Type 10)

* * * * *

"Mixed" Use of Two Languages

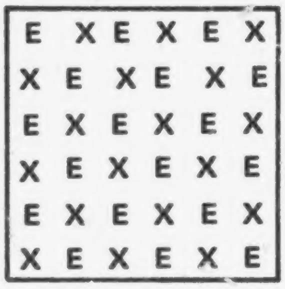


Fig. 14 (Type 10)

A few words may be in order about the unique time pattern in which bilingual teachers "mix" the languages or move freely from one to the other throughout the day. The goal is to achieve a 50-50 time distribution equivalent to that in other forms of Type 10 (see 10.1, 10.2.1, and 10.2.2).

This unfettered arrangement has two very great attractions: it mixes all children from the start, and it requires only one set of teachers. Examples can be seen in grades 1-3 in Nye School of the United Consolidated Independent School District outside Laredo, Texas; and in grade 1 of the John F. Kennedy Community School in West Berlin. The possibilities for equal treatment in all subject areas seem to be much greater in N and K, with progressively more problems as one moves up through the grades.

The chief difficulty, as far as time itself is concerned, is in actually achieving the desired time distribution in all subjects and activities. It is hard to keep track of how much each language is really used for what. In addition, the bilingual teacher is almost inevitably stronger in E in some domains and in X in others, and this is likely to tip the balance now one way and now the other. Special kinds of questions for achievement testing thus arise.

III. Methods and Materials

Both methods and materials have been touched on incidentally elsewhere in this chapter, particularly with respect to specific subject matters. But some of the most troublesome questions still remain. One of them is this: how to get everything in.

Time and again teachers and administrators will be forced to ask themselves what they really *want* to get in, and how badly they want it. This is the fundamental question. Be it said at the outset that the easiest solution is to forget about bilingual and bicultural education altogether; or if not that, to give only token recognition to the X language and culture. This is the easiest, we say; yet we have seen in the educational results of the past how far short of being satisfactory has been our policy of pouring all children into the same mold.

Any other system that we, the authors, know anything about takes more effort, more thought, and usually more money. No way around it. But there do seem to be ways of accomplishing this better education without taking more of the children's time. The three best ideas about this seem to be. (1) to split the total time for a subject between the two languages; (2) to allot some subjects to one language and some to the other; or (3) a combination of these two approaches: one system for some subjects, the other for the rest.[42]

Splitting the Time. This idea usually frightens a teacher, especially if there is the prospect of using a team-teaching approach in which one teacher has half the day in one language and his opposite number has the other half day. He immediately sees that this cuts in half his time for each subject he teaches. He needs to be reminded that, although this is true, the subject itself is not receiving any less time, for the child gets an equal amount of instruction from another teacher of the same subject.

All teaching involves repetition. In this case much of the repetition comes through the other language. This change of medium, it is supposed, works to make the repetition more effective, for we know that repetition should rarely be used verbatim. Teaching requires that the same thing be said over and over and over again, but in different ways, until the ideas are fully mastered. Using two languages can in itself combat boredom at the same time that it holds out the possibility of giving the child new perspectives on the subject he is studying.

Splitting the time can also be an antidote to laziness or "tuning out" on the part of some children, especially if the two-teacher system is used. Here the demands of each teacher are independent (the team will undoubtedly compare notes, but the children will have little consciousness of this behind-the-scenes operation),[43] and the child knows he needs the approval of each one.

Each teacher should therefore act as if everything the child learned in a specific subject depended on his own portion of the day, but comfort himself in his dark hours by realizing there is a counterpart he can rely on. His own work will always be supplemented by another teacher who is trying too.

The Coral Way School has recently devised a new system of grade-reporting which would appear to have advantages in this area as well as in others. Formerly the two teachers of a child conferred, and, at the end of each grading period they compromised on a grade for each subject. This had the disadvantage of obscuring the difference between *subject* strength or weakness and *language* strength or weakness. Under the new system there will be a grade for mathematics in Spanish and one for mathematics in English, etc. By looking at all the grades in both languages, both parent and school can tell whether the child's problem areas are related to a specific subject matter or to one or the other of the languages.

It is a part of our system that we require children to perform for grades. Under the arrangement proposed, we believe this aspect of the system could be turned to greater benefits for the child himself. One teacher may be able to keep all the children attentive and interested all the time, but unfortunately such master teachers are rare. Two teachers, each with half the total time for a school subject, seem much more likely than one to be able to make profitable use of the grade-reward system.

Whether the teaching is done by a team or by a single bilingual teacher, we are assuming that the instruction given in the two languages will not be carbon-copy. As we see it, translation or near-translation involves three major hazards in a bilingual program if the same child gets both versions. First, it is boring. Hardly anything more damaging could be said about elementary school instruction. Only the most phenomenal child will learn from something that bores him. Second, if the child knows he will get the same thing sooner or later in his own best language, he will tend to wait for that, and not reach for the second language. And third, materials that are translated for this purpose are almost invariably unicultural in content. We will not belabor this point, hoping instead that the reasons underlying our preference for a bicultural or multicultural outlook have already been made clear.

If one bilingual teacher is chosen rather than a team, the arguments of the preceding paragraph would suggest that he seriously consider setting aside specific portions of time for each language, rather than "mixing" them freely throughout the day.[44] Such a division does have what some teachers consider to be a drawback: a child's interest and curiosity may at a certain moment suggest a question that he hesitates to voice if the language being used at the time is his weaker means of communication. The loss can be minimized if children are made to feel that the division between the portions of the day is not inviolable – that there is never a time when the use of their mother tongue would be morally wrong – and only that the goal is to use each language at its own separate time. This attitude, developed in children, will help them to come to see that there are times and places when each language in turn is preferable to any other, and to develop a sense of which situations are which, and why. In the process, however, such instruction would require that no teacher in a bilingual school, at least through the primary grades, be 100 percent unilingual. It is not only children who must make room for other styles of life, but adults as well.

Finally, we should say that most of what has just preceded has taken for granted an equal split in time (Program Type 10.2.1.). Unequal splits are also possible (Types 6.2, 8.2, and 9.2). Under these arrangements one language is the main load-bearer, and the other, in a smaller amount of time, tries to reinforce the learning of the whole curriculum. This presents obvious difficulties for the teacher using the language with the smaller amount of time, but judicious emphasis, either on what is most needed or on what the children show special interest and talent for, can make the program valuable. In these cases of unequal split, it is especially important that the child's attention not be focused unduly on the language itself as a subject, but on the things that can be learned *through* that language.[45]

Allotting the Time by Subjects. The main questions, if it is decided to allot some subjects to English and others to X, are: which ones? and on what basis? There seems to be a fair amount of agreement. Language arts obviously go to their respective languages. Art, music, physical education, recess, lunch, assemblies, parties, field trips, and athletic contests – all these can be in either language or both. These are features of school that are close to life itself and, as Fishman points out,[46]*laissez-faire* used to be a part of the American mystique. Let us see if we can revitalize this value in our rapidly solidifying culture. Quick before it hardens!

Two criteria may help in making the other decisions, if not all subjects are to be learned bilingually by the child.

1) Those things considered to be the areas of highest achievement of each culture might be taught to the child in that culture's language. Especially for X-speaking children, outstanding aspects of the X culture should be available to them in their dominant tongue. Thus a people's history and its own cultural patterns should be seen from the inside, in X, by X-speaking children. Meanwhile, the E version of this same subject matter should not be so uniculturally E as to omit the X achievements, even if they are dealt with in somewhat less detail there.

2) Courses that may be expected to be of particular occupational utility to the child should be available to him in his dominant language. Children from the X side have natural advantages, if they are properly schooled, in becoming bilingual secretaries (very very few now have the literate skills for this), customs and immigration officials, international airline or other business employees, interpreters and translators for various governmental agencies, teachers of the X language or of other subjects in bilingual schools; "...no plan will be successful that does not open the door for the pupils into satisfying jobs in the American culture as it exists in the last half of the twentieth century."[47] Program planners should look at the region around them and ask themselves what special opportunities there are for educated bilinguals, not stopping with blue-collar jobs. What would be the opportunities in law, for example, or in medicine? It is not a mistake to look that far ahead in trying to determine what should be offered in which language in the elementary school. Nor should the present narrowness of subsequent educational facilities in X be too heavily weighed. As our whole society expands, opportunities for both education and work will certainly expand as well: it seems certain we can never be an island unto ourselves again.

We have been speaking of allotting subjects to languages on a more or less ongoing basis (Program Types 10.1, 9.1, 8.1, or 6.1). This can also be done by rotation, so that the children are not left with all their formal education in some subjects in E, and in other subjects in X. One way of offsetting this, especially after the point at which subjects are departmentalized, is to have a subject taught in E at one grade level and in X at the next. For example, if a school has two social studies teachers for grades 4-6, and one teacher can teach social studies in X at these three grades, the children who study that subject in X at grade 4 can pursue it in E at grade 5, and back to X in grade 6. The other teacher has a similarly rotating student body. Exceptions can be made for individual children as the need arises. This kind of leap-frogging from one year to the next is not as impractical as it may at first sound; most teachers spend a period at the first of each year in review. In this system, "review" would in part be a recapping of previously learned material by adding the necessary vocabulary and terminology to cover the new concepts acquired the year before.

Combinations. Combinations of time-splitting and subject-allotting are also possible, as we have suggested, and variations can be worked out best at each local scene. One example should suffice. If mathematics in E seems to be generally a great problem for X speakers, the X children might split their mathematics time between X and E even if E children study mathematics only in E. The point is that there is no reason to make all children follow precisely the same pattern: the idea is to help them *learn*. If, however, they can learn in two languages, bilingualism becomes an asset, not a liability. Arthur Jensen has noted that the two most reliable indices of socio-economic status are occupation and educational achievement. Beyond economics and beyond the number of grades completed lies the intellectual status of competence across cultures. We believe this kind of education is the finest that a community can offer, to any or all of its children.

Methodology in Early Stages. Contemporary views differ on what teaching method is most appropriate to early childhood. Stated in a greatly over-simplified way, some authorities stress freedom and play as the best avenues for learning, while others emphasize the economy of a highly structured approach, with teaching materials and procedures planned out in much detail. A third view is a synthesis of the first and second: it accepts the motivational validity of play, and it assumes this is not necessarily in conflict with order based on purely linguistic concerns.

In speaking of methodologies for a bilingual child or program, language teachers and others must constantly remind themselves that it is not language alone that the child must learn. It is everything that goes into his school education. The primary factor is who and what the child is, *apart* from the school. His particular background can tell us, if we listen hard enough, both what he wants to preserve of that non-school self and what the school may add that will benefit him.[48]

Ideally such diagnosis would be done on an absolutely individual basis. We are far from accomplishing such a dreamed-of education for each individual child, but the least we can do is to take cognizance of the large groups among us that bring different things with them to the school. This means that we should not expect to find one methodology that will work best with all cultural groups. Some cultures teach their children personal pride with high achievement; others teach theirs that personal victories should not be permitted to single out an individual from his fellows. In teaching the children of these two backgrounds, it would first of all seem essential that the teacher know thoroughly the framework of values within which his pupils live and work; and second, that he proceed in such a way as to help each child, rather than setting him at odds with his family or with the children of the other cultural group. The fact that all the children go to the same school does not mean there is no variety in their cultural milieu outside. Thus it may be entirely reasonable to have two very different methodologies being used in one school.

The teacher must be especially flexible in the presence of an X-speaking child. While respecting the child's native dialect, he must tactfully add or expand a standard form of X, and at the same time initiate the child into E. Also, while respecting the values of the X culture, he must teach sufficient understanding of E cultural values to enable the child to feel at home in both the X stream and the E stream. This is very far from being an easy task.

We agree with Zintz, Ulibarrí, and Miller that "the child whose cultural heritage is different from the school culture is in need of special educational services that will bridge the cultural barriers and meet his language needs before he can take advantage of the course of study with which he is apt to be confronted."[49] The authors spell out some of the values that the dominant culture teaches, values with which any child in an American school needs to become familiar:

1. He must climb the ladder of success, and in order to do this he must place a high value on competitive achievement.

2. He must learn time orientation that will be precise to the hour and minute, and he must also learn to place a high value on looking to the future.

3. He must accept the teachers' reiteration that there is a scientific explanation for all natural phenomena.

4. He must become accustomed to change and must anticipate change. (The dominant culture teaches that "change," in and of itself, is good and desirable!)

5. He must trade his shy, quiet, reserved, and anonymous behavior for socially approved aggressive, competitive behavior.

6. He must somehow be brought to understand that he can, with some independence, shape his own destiny, as opposed to the tradition of remaining an anonymous member of his society.[50]

These are new and in part alien concepts to some of the children in our schools, yet we wish to register serious doubts about a good bit of what passes for "concept development" among children with little or no English. On the whole, children come to school with their own culture's concepts already formed or forming in their minds. Too often teachers and materials writers think that they have *no* concepts, or proceed as if they had none. This can be quite damaging, for it fails to recognize that the child's mind is not simply a *tabula rasa:* he is being presented two different and sometimes positively conflicting value systems. As Sarah Gudschinsky comments,

> *...teachers are inclined to expect as "concept development" in a non-English speaker the simple memorizing and parroting of words for which the child has in fact no meaning. (Without doubt we do this with the English-speaking child as well. An immediate illustration which comes to mind is a Sunday school class which I taught on Easter Sunday of this year. Asked: what is Easter for? the children answered readily "It is the day when Jesus rose from the dead." Pressed for an explanation of the phrase "rose from the dead," however, the children had no realistic idea whatsoever of what these words mean. It was a shocking surprise to them when we discussed the Easter event in terms of a modern setting in which a corpse pushes up the lid of his coffin and climbs out.)*
>
> *It has been drawn to my attention that in Australia the Aborigines reach a ceiling in their education in English which is at least in part due to the fact that they have a great deal of English vocabulary that they can read and use in answering test questions but for which they actually have no real world meaning at all.*
>
> *It seems to me that this is an important element in the notion of teaching a second language to children, and in the notion of concept development.*
>
> *Another point ... is that it is not easy to give a person a new concept if that new concept is in conflict with something he already knows. In this connection the cross-cultural studies are exceedingly important. Unless the teacher understands what the child has already learned from his own culture, he will find it very difficult to give him new ideas which match the second culture.*[51]

Methodology of Second Language Teaching. Within this much larger picture is the methodology of teaching the second language as such, where there are again differences in contemporary ideas. The basis for some of these differences has been discussed in our section on Content, under "The Child's Second Language." Bruce Gaarder, speaking of second language teaching, writes as follows:

> *The teacher-learning cannot be left to chance or to the teacher's ingenuity.... The* structuring *comes outside of class, when the course of study is being laid down. It consists of the careful selection, in advance, of situations, experiences, activities,* and most especially teacher-pupil talk, *which guarantee complete coverage and re-coverage of the desired lexicon and structures and concepts, but which, in the classroom, make language the means of natural access to those situations, experiences, and activities. In other words, the child's attention should not be focused on language and the teacher's use of language should not be restricted or made inauthentic. The* structuring *should not be* apparent *to anyone, but the curriculum-makers know it's there.*[52]

Toward Merging. How far up the grades one has to go before all children are able to merge successfully without regard to language is not known, and there will always be individual differences. Two points should perhaps be made about the idea of merging:

1) All instruction in and through the child's weaker or second language (SL) should aim toward the eventual use of this language as if it were not weaker. That is, teachers should strive to bring ESL to E (ESLE), and XSL to X (XSLX) as rapidly as possible. The sooner this can be accomplished, the better. Children will profit in their SL by maximum interaction with native-speaking peers, and teachers will have their instructional planning reduced from two streams to one. This applies whether one is speaking of the language as a subject or as a medium for teaching other subjects. As soon as any child can join a section not marked SL, he should be transferred into the regular E or X section for that part of the day. Transfer of this kind should be highlighted as a mark of excellence, whichever language the child is "graduating" in.

2) The X child should not be forced to "graduate" before he is ready, especially from ESL language arts. The effect of pressing him too hard would be to abandon him too soon to competition he cannot meet. ESL language arts will probably be the last subject in which he can successfully join the rest of the E students in common instruction through E. By the same token XSL language arts will probably last longest for E students striving to join the X stream.

Materials

The identification, annotation, and evaluation of instructional materials in such a way as to be useful for

(1) each age and interest level, and
(2) each difficulty range, in
(3) each subject area, for
(4) each culture or subculture, and
(5) each linguistic group

is a task clearly beyond the scope of this monograph. Aside from the fact that the present writers do not have the various kinds of specialized knowledge to do the work that needs to be done in this field, it seems doubtful that a single listing for all these variables could be made quickly enough, or kept up to date well enough, to make such a project feasible. There is both a dearth of materials and a wealth of materials, depending on what one is looking for and what criteria he is trying to meet. Rather than naming specific sets of materials or individual books in one language or the other, therefore, we offer the reader a few thoughts on these subjects: finding existing materials that are usable or adaptable and creating materials, teacher made or otherwise. We have also indicated some sources of materials in Appendix W.

Finding Out What Exists. Unfortunately, many teachers and administrators who are new to the field of bilingual schooling conclude all too quickly that no materials, or no suitable materials, exist for their particular situation. This may indeed be true, particularly in the local languages. "Of the nearly 300 American Indian languages and dialects extant, only roughly 40 percent have more than 100 speakers. In the case of about 55 percent of these languages, the remaining speakers are of advanced age."[53] Instructional materials for these small groups are few and far between. At the other extreme there is the case of Spanish, whose abundance of visual and written material existing for the nearly 200 million Spanish speakers in various parts of the world has hardly had its surface scratched by our experimenters in bilingual schooling. This is not to suggest that every book written in an X language is immediately ready for use in the schools of this country. There are questions of commercial availability and supply; of standards of editing, printing, and binding; of uniculturalism from the X side, especially regarding national allegiance and religion. In some instances there is the need for diplomatic and cultural agreements between our countries to make use or adaptation possible. But the *creation* of materials is an arduous path, filled with pitfalls even for experienced travelers. We advise that, whenever it is at all possible, existing materials be tried first, and adapted as necessary. Let us survey the field briefly.

Materials for teaching English as a second language are in great supply, especially in the language arts sense. Materials in English for other subjects, specifically designed for those learning it as a second language, are much less common. Some ESL materials have been designed with a specific dominant-language background in mind, to teach, say, English to Spanish speakers. Writers of such books concentrate on specific points at which the Spanish and English language systems differ. Other writers attribute less importance to the learner's "language of departure" and stress each part of English structure or sound as they judge best. In selecting a set of materials, the bilingual program planner should be aware of the population the writers themselves had in mind. Such a factor might not preclude their usefulness for a different population, but it should be borne in mind.

To our knowledge, the best sources of information on materials for ESL—both titles and evaluations— are the Center for Applied Linguistics and TESOL. (See Appendix W. Directory: Sources of Materials). Inquiries should state the age of the learners, their linguistic and cultural background, and the difficulty level sought.

The subject of materials in the other languages makes a much less neat package. For Indian and Eskimo languages, the Center for Applied Linguistics is again probably the best source of information, but the Summer Institute of Linguistics (See Appendix W, Directory) is also extremely helpful. This organization has developed literacy materials and textbooks in numerous languages, even for very small groups of speakers, and its *Bibliography*[54] should not be overlooked by those concerned with local tongues.

For languages of wider communication other than English, the most general source of information is the MLA (Modern Language Association) and its organizational "child," the young but vigorous ACTFL (American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages), located at the same address. (See Appendix W, Directory.) In 1962, the MLA issued an annotated *Selective List of Materials* which included guidelines or criteria for judging numerous categories of materials, whether printed, audiovisual, or combinations. This list was updated with *Supplements* for various languages in 1964 (see Appendix W, Directory). Most of the items listed were judged with respect to their suitability for E speakers learning X as a foreign language. A few, however, were reviewed with an eye to their usefulness either to a native speaker of X attempting to further his general education through X, or to an E speaker in a more high-powered X course of the kind a full-blown bilingual program might need. Also included with each of these lists is a directory of publishers, some American and some foreign.

In the case of Spanish, another ambitious effort has been undertaken, this time by Books for the People Fund, Inc., whose director, Mrs. Marietta Daniels Shepard, can be contacted at the Pan American Union in Washington, D. C. Mrs. Shepard is guiding a staff of trained personnel in the collection of printed Spanish material on all subjects for use by children of various ages, whether as regular school texts or for general reading. The materials sent by publishers are reviewed for quality of content and for physical makeup. Only books available in quantities of at least 100 copies are considered. Those judged suitable for use by schools in this country except for binding are rebound sturdily. Translation from other languages are included if they meet the criteria otherwise. The items that have been accepted as recommendable are listed then in the bulletin of *Proyecto Leer*, whose editor is Martha Tomé. At present this bulletin is issued free, at about quarterly intervals. It seems to the authors of this monograph that *Proyecto Leer* deserves broad support, both from schools searching for texts and library books and from those in position to give financial aid. The work thus far has been done almost altogether on a volunteer basis. *Proyecto Leer* comes closer than any other center, that we know about, to being a possible clearinghouse for the entire spectrum of needed materials in print for Spanish. Since 90 percent of the programs funded by the BEA this year are for this one language, a major push to expand such services seems to be in order.

Efforts are already under way to try to arrange for use in the United States of schoolbooks published by the Republic of Mexico, either with or without adaptation. Also being investigated is the possibility that the AID/ROCAP texts in Spanish may become available here. These elementary-school texts in reading, language, mathematics, science, and social studies are being cooperatively produced by writing teams representing the six Central American countries and were initially planned for use there. Their appropriateness for use in our own bilingual schools, and their availability, are being explored. Again Mrs. Shepard is perhaps the best source of information.

Worthy of mention too are the French Cultural Services, which, like most foreign governmental services, are ready to help locate sources of materials and other professional information.

The important point to remember is that there are organizations that may quite properly be called upon to assume the primary responsibility for collecting, reviewing, evaluating, and publicizing materials. This work should be done by disinterested professional groups, with whom reputable publishers have shown that they know how to cooperate fully. If schools find themselves without information on the matter of materials, the authors suggest that they not delay in making their needs known to appropriate organizations—those we have mentioned and any of the others that may be expected to have the interests of particular groups of X children at heart (see Appendix W, Directory: Organizations).

An important question to decide is whether adopted or adapted materials *can* be made to fit the objectives of a program or whether their use will produce outcomes that will seriously alter the objectives. In our opinion the danger is not great provided one is aware of the problem. One bilingual program in Texas considered some Mexican materials but found them nationalistically oriented. They decided to refer the matter to the school board, which very sensibly suggested, "Use them by all means. Whenever the Mexican flag is waved, just wave the American flag, and go right on."

Creating Materials

> It is imperative to determine how long in the school life of the learner a language can be *maintained* as a medium of instruction. The availability of suitable reading matter is perhaps the most significant single measure which could be used to help answer this important question. If we are going to start with programs likely to succeed, it is more important to make use of what is available than to invest heavily in the preparation of expensive low-circulation materials which may never be used.[55]

To this *caveat* the authors would like to add that "inexpensive" school texts, produced by a single author, can turn out to be just as costly in the long run if individuals all across the country are working single-handedly or naively. Good textbooks for language study prepared by a sole author have become almost an anomaly. People in this field have come to realize more and more the variety of talents and skills involved, and the rarity of finding all the necessary wisdom and ability within one person. In this respect *Modern Spanish* was a kind of trail-blazer in 1959.[56] Textbook companies, regional service centers, and regional educational laboratories have all seen the value of applying teams of specialists (including classroom teachers) to production. Anyone, or any group, about to embark on a maiden voyage in materials-writing would probably find it instructive to consult with someone who has been involved in such a team undertaking, before plans are too firmly made.

Creation or Redesigning of a Writing System. But what if the X is an unwritten language, or one whose writing system is not very good? All languages were originally unwritten (except constructed languages like Esperanto) and the fact that some remain so today is unrelated to their essence as living languages and to their crucial significance to their native speakers' lives. Yet without written forms, these languages can have only a limited role in present-day American schooling. Any language that is to survive long as a medium of instruction in American education must have or acquire a viable writing system and a considerable body of writing on a variety of subjects.

Most of the major writing systems known in the world today have been the products of centuries of slow adaptation of symbol to sound (alphabets) or idea (ideograms or pictographs).[57] That there is a relatively consistent relationship between these arbitrarily shaped graphic symbols and human speech or thought is the first thing a beginner must learn about reading.

Some writing systems—the so-called "phonetic" or phonemic ones—are thought to be better than others for the purposes of learning how to read. Some systems have had a vast network of machinery invented for their use in print, or are compatible with one of these networks. Others are not so favored. Cherokee, for example. We are told that there is only one typewriter in existence that can mechanically produce the Cherokee symbols.[58] Serious attempts to produce instructional materials in appropriate quantities are naturally hindered by such a situation. Yet whether this linguistically sound alphabet should be abandoned in favor of another less precise one in the interest of ease of dissemination is not a question that should be decided by innocents.

> *It may not be quite so obvious to point out, in connection with modern spelling, that the objects of a good spelling system are two-fold. A speaker of the language should be able to pronounce correctly any sequence of letters that he may meet even if they were previously unknown, and secondarily, to be able to spell any phonemic sequence, again even if previously unknown. Most modern systems, such as Spanish, French, or Hungarian fulfill the first aim fairly well, and fail primarily in the second. The peculiar badness of the English system lies in the fact that it fails about equally in both. How badly it fails was once illustrated for me by the difficulty an Oriental student encountered in transliterating his name into English. The sequence of English phonemes was /čuw/. He could have chosen* Chew, Choo, *or* Chue, *but instead chose* Chough*–about the worst spelling which is possible.*[59]

The greatest single source of contemporary expertise in the field of invention of writing systems is the Summer Institute of Linguistics. A perusal of the *Bibliography of the Summer Institute of Linguistics 1935-1968* (compiled by Alan C. Wares, Santa Ana, California, 1968) suggests the nature and variety of the problems and also provides clues to some of the individuals who might appropriately be called upon to work on a specific language under educational development. This is a task of considerable complexity and certainly not one for amateurs.

Exclusively Oral Use of X. As we remarked above, no language can play an important role in present-day American schooling if it does not have a written form. The same can be said of the language that *can* be written and read but is in fact dealt with only orally by the community's school. Our educational system puts a tremendous premium on literacy, and it is not accidental that learning to read and write are among the bed-rock objectives of the first grade. If all this effort is devoted to literacy in E, the school is powerfully defining X, whether intentionally or unconsciously, as useless for the real business of education. The effects of this judgment can range from the sobering to the devastating and positively pernicious, depending on the actual measure of "development" the child's language has achieved on a world-wide scale. For the Supai on the floor of the Grand Canyon, it probably represents the cold truth of his tribe's place in today's world; but for the Spanish-speaking son of a migrant tomato-picker or the daughter of a Franco-American potato farmer it is misrepresentation of the grossest order.

Yet the Supai are not to be forgotten. However few there are, each of those children is one human life. How to square this basic fact with the press of other Americans who may be in less dire need but come in much greater numbers is a question with no easy solution. One hope is that public funds and private sacrifice can combine to attack the problem from both ends. The Summer Institute of Linguistics, otherwise known as the Wycliffe Bible Translators, works primarily with peoples too few in numbers to attract much public attention; yet these linguistic analysts are among the best trained in the world. Their work is interdenominational, but primarily religious and humanitarian in its motives. If one sees bilingual schooling as related to the health of our nation, these workers deserve their country's high regard. Public honor for noble service is a form of reward that should not be permitted to go out of style, and individual sacrifices will continue to be needed, even as we seek the public funds that will be required to help integrate the lives of larger masses of X speakers among us.

IV. *Teachers and Teacher Aides*

In this section we propose to discuss the role of teachers and teacher aides in a bilingual program under such headings as the special role of the teacher aide, English-medium teachers, teachers of English as a second language, X-medium teachers, the teacher's role, qualifications, inservice training, preservice training, recruitment and selection of teachers, and the use of foreign teachers. Not included in this section are other specialized personnel, such as librarians, guidance counselors, attendance officers, and nurses, important though they are.

The Special Role of Teacher Aides

Following the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, which authorized the use of teacher aides under Title I, they have been employed very commonly in bilingual areas. Girls who have completed two or three years of college and whose education has been interrupted for financial reasons, and housewives who can arrange their domestic chores in such a way as to be free during the school day, are frequently used as aides.

There are no academic qualifications required. More important than these are personal qualities and satisfaction with this kind of work. A cheerful disposition, a gentle touch, willingness to follow instructions, fondness for children, these are some of characteristics looked for in teacher aides.

It is the teacher who decides exactly how the aide shall be used, and the possibilities vary all the way from doing chores to overseeing seat work or even conducting group reading. The hope is that some aides will find this work so gratifying that they will make the effort necessary to continue schooling and ultimately get their degree and teaching certificate and help swell the ranks of teachers.

Study and research are needed to determine best ways to use teacher aides. Originally used to relieve the classroom teacher of such chores as taking attendance, collecting milk money, helping children with their snowsuits, supervising play, and gathering supplies, they have come to play a special role in the bilingual setting, by bringing to the classroom another language. If the teacher is a monolingual English speaker, an X-speaking aide serves as a link between X-speaking children and the E-speaking school environment. An E-speaking aide can likewise supplement the teaching of an X-speaking teacher. In either case the aide is a link between the school and the community.

English-Medium Teachers

Unilingual speakers of English are by no means unneeded in a bilingual program, but about their qualifications to teach in English to native English speakers, which have been set by a long tradition, we shall have nothing special to say except that they should have a sympathetic understanding of bilingual schooling.

English-speaking teachers assigned to teach any subject to children whose first language is *not* English do require special training, for English as a second language (ESL) poses special problems. Teachers' failure to realize that for X-speaking children English is not a native language has placed these children at a great disadvantage. The pioneering efforts of such men as C. C. Fries date back some twenty-five years, but only in the last decade has an understanding of ESL begun to penetrate the ranks of teachers. There are several organizations that can help the teacher of children who use English as a second language, such as the National Council of Teachers of English; the Center for Applied Linguistics; and since 1966, an organization called TESOL (Teachers of English to Sperkers of Other Languages), which publishes the TESOL QUARTERLY. There are also several universities which specialize in preparing ESL teachers, e.g., the University of Michigan, UCLA, Georgetown University, and the University of Texas. The Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) sponsors institutes for teachers of ESL, among others.

X-Medium Teachers

When X is a language of wider communication, e.g., Arabic, French, Chinese, German, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish, it coincides with what schools or universities have long taught *as foreign languages*. Teacher-preparing institutions have traditionally trained teachers of at least some of these languages, but they have not focused on their teaching *as non-foreign languages*, as is required in bilingual programs.

When X is a local language, e.g., Navajo, Hopi, Cherokee, Basque, Eskimo, and Samoan, we are even less well equipped to prepare the needed teachers. As happened in World War II, when we were caught short of linguistically competent personnel, our present sudden need of qualified teachers for bilingual programs finds us woefully unprepared.

Teachers for Indian and Eskimo Children

Whether the schools for these children are operated by the BIA, by a state, or by a local school district, they face the most difficult task of all in providing really adequate instruction.[60] History has been against these children so that they are generally forgotten and in many, many cases miserably deprived. At none of the levels where their education is provided for is there remotely enough money to do what is needed, and what is needed will be much more expensive than an ordinary or even good school program for most other children. Apart from the problem of instructional materials, which in the main have still to be produced, the supply of trained teachers coming from these ethnic and linguistic groups themselves is virtually nil. Indian education is under severe scrutiny already, and sweeping changes are in order. Some of them are already begun especially by the BIA in cooperation with the Center for Applied Linguistics.[61] It is imperative that in our zeal to see wrongs righted at once we not trample these tender sprouts of a new planting. American know-how has not yet invented instant harvest.

The Role of the Teacher in the Bilingual Program

One Teacher, Two Languages. What are the advantages of using one teacher to teach in two languages, as compared with those of using two or more teachers, each of whom uses one language? We shall assume for purposes of this discussion of the teacher's role that it makes no essential difference whether the X language is local or one of wider communication.

The ideal of the self-contained classroom, though not held so exclusively today as it was a few years ago, still appeals to many. The mother-substitute role of the teacher, which is a part of this concept, is especially applicable to the nursery, kindergarten, and primary grades, where the child still feels dependent on the teacher.

The use of a single bilingual teacher, rather than two or more, will appear as a great advantage to those who regard the self-contained classroom as desirable. In such a situation one teacher has exclusive responsibility for the children, can get to know each one intimately, and can plan the program in a unified and coherent fashion. Even when an aide is present, the latter plays only a subordinate and self-effacing role and is entirely subject to the directives of the teacher.

In such a situation the bilingual teacher enjoys a degree of freedom in deciding the relative use of the two languages and in implementing directives received from the principal and the bilingual coordinator.

Two or More Teachers, Each Using One Language. Perhaps the most obvious advantage of this "team" arrangement is that it makes possible the use of a native, unaccented speaker of English to teach in English and of a native, unaccented speaker of X to teach in X. In addition each teacher can presumably represent and interpret one culture better than two. Teachers serve as models to children, who learn more by imitation and analogy than by prescription. This is particularly applicable to the learning of pronunication and of cultural values. Authenticity–in speech and in cultural representation–is of prime importance.

Team teaching recommends itself also because often "two heads are better than one." In planning complex daily programs two or more teachers who collaborate harmoniously can tap greater resources than one and should find stimulation in such collaboration. Teachers with different cultural and educational backgrounds can learn a great deal from one another, which they can then pass on to the children.

The phrase "two or more" requires a word of explanation. In addition to the common pattern, in which one teacher does all of the teaching in English and another teacher does all of the teaching in X, though not necessarily in the same subjects, it is possible to add to the team other specialists in certain curricular subjects, such as art, music, health, and physical education, who can teach in either language and help with the planning. We suggest that the school librarian would also make an invaluable addition to such an instructional team.

One Teacher or Two? The single bilingual teacher pattern is perhaps easier and safer. It is clearly easier to translate ideas from one head into a unified and coherent lesson plan than to take the time necessary to reconcile varied points of view and to convert them into a mutually satisfactory plan of action. It is safer because dangers lurk in team teaching in the form of possible clashes of views and of personality.

Despite the advantages of the single bilingual teacher and the hazards of the teaching team, we see three significant advantages in the latter. (1) It gives greater assurance that the children will learn an authentic native accent in both languages and will acquire a more authentic understanding of both cultures. (2) It holds the promise of a more interesting and varied program of learning activities. (3) It is in its very format an example of cross-cultural education.

Qualifications

There is, so far as we know, no official definition of the qualifications of an X-medium teacher when X is the home language of the school children. Fortunately, however, the Statement of Qualifications of Teachers of Foreign Languages,[62] prepared by a group of modern foreign language teachers under the sponsorship of the Modern Language Association of America, are largely applicable. Teacher qualifications in several areas–listening comprehension, speaking, reading, writing, applied linguistics, culture and civilization, and professional preparation are defined in precise terms, which can be measured by the Modern Language Association Foreign Language Proficiency Tests. The first four tests would be used no matter what subject is to be taught through X, and the last three have particular significance for teachers of X as a second language.

In addition, we have two valuable unofficial statements of qualifications of teachers for programs of bilingual education, of which we quote one.[63]

> *The teacher should be a literate native speaker of the standard dialect and if possible of the student's variant of the language. For work at the high school level and above, the teacher should have learned through the medium of the second language the subject matter to be taught. This is essential because of the impossibility of improvising or translating extemporaneously the special terminology and phraseology that are inseparable from each academic discipline and professional field. The teacher's competence could be determined and his certification based on the results of proficiency tests such as those prepared by the Modern Language Association for the five common languages and distributed by the Educational Testing Service. For languages lacking such standardized tests, certification could be based on the report of a state examining committee.*
>
> *Experience with Franco-Americans has shown that while the ideal mother tongue teacher is a member of the same ethnic group as his students, his effectiveness depends as much upon his Americanness and modernity as upon his pedagogy and linguistic competence. Students do not sympathize readily with a teacher who is foreign to American language and culture and too prone to praise "Old Country" values and customs.*
>
> *The mother tongue teacher must, above all, know how to cope with dialectal variations, without disparagement of the student's idiolect and free of the misconception that the parents' speech is a serious impediment to learning.*

All teachers of young children should be thoroughly familiar with the proces of child growth and development.

Despite the great concentrations of X speakers in the United States, which would seem to constitute a large reservoir of bilingual teachers, the truth is that most of these X speakers are undereducated in their language and almost entirely untrained for this specialized task. Even those among them who are already teachers have usually received their education and their teacher training in English, not in X. Suddenly called on to teach bilingually, they often feel unequal to the task.

Take the case of native speakers of Spanish in the Southwest and consider their preparation to teach bilingually. Typically, they spent their first six years in a Spanish-speaking home and neighborhood; and when they entered school, they were required to neglect their dominant language, Spanish, and to try to learn through their weaker language, English.[64] Deprived in the elementary grades of the opportunity to become literate in their native language, Spanish speakers are permitted in high school to elect an elementary course in Spanish. By this time they have lost interest and are resigned to the tag of "underachievers" which the school assigns them. If they bring themselves to take a high-school course in Spanish, they find the course designed for English speakers. Like them, the Spanish speaker needs to learn how to read and write, but unlike them he already has an audiolingual control of the language. The learning problems of English speakers and Spanish speakers are radically different, and yet they are put together in one class and treated alike. The result for the Spanish speaker, once again, is frustration. In college the speaker of Spanish encounters the same mass-production procedures. When, exceptionally, he is offered special sections planned to meet his particular needs, it is already too late. He feels hopeless or fears the amount of work that would be required of him if he is to make up for twelve years of miseducation.

Bruce Gaarder points out the adverse effect that this unfortunate language policy has had on the Spanish speaker: "If he has not achieved reasonable literacy in his mother tongue—ability to read, write, and speak it accurately—it will be virtually useless to him for any technical or professional work where language matters. Thus, his unique potential career advantage, his bilingualism, will have been destroyed."[65]

From this lugubrious sketch of the education of the Spanish speakers of the Southwest we conclude that, though there is potentially an ample supply of bilingual teachers, the actual supply is severely limited. Recent arrivals from Cuba and Puerto Rico in Florida and the New York area represent very different educational backgrounds and can more readily be oalled into service.

Immediately available, even in the Southwest, is a small number of potential teachers from the following sources: A few have learned to read and write in their homes because their parents required them to, out of respect for the ancestral language and culture. A few others have taught themselves to read and write, often before school age, and have continued to read.

And still others have resolved later in their schooling to make up for lost time. Individuals and families who have thus compensated for the deficiencies of schools and colleges naturally deserve the highest praise, but these exceptional initiatives cannot even come close to supplying our total need of bilingual teachers.

The insufficient education in Spanish of many Southwestern Spanish-surname teachers leaves them with deficiencies that they are well aware of. In fact they sometimes exaggerate their shortcomings. Let us examine what steps could be taken to convert these potential bilingual teachers into fully qualified ones.

What Can They Do to Upgrade Their Spanish? The first necessity is for them to understand the state of their Spanish—both its strong and weak points. To acquire such an understanding, it may be necessary to do some basic reading on the nature of language and on the process of language learning,[66] possibly to request a phonetic and syntactic analysis by a linguist, and to measure one's proficiency by taking all or part of the MLA FL Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students.

Many a Spanish speaker, conscious of his lack of academic study in the language, underestimates the great advantage he has over those who have academic knowledge alone. For example, the native speaker of Spanish, though he may never have had any formal schooling in it, has complete control of the sound system and of the structure of the language, as it is used in his locale. He can communicate with ease and fluency with other Spanish speakers in his community. In fact, he can understand and be understood by Spanish speakers from any part of the Hispanic world. Dialectal differences in lexicon, in structure, in pronunciation very rarely constitue a serious obstacle to communication.

At the same time many Spanish speakers *do* have some shortcomings. The most common are: lack of skill in reading and writing, lack of vocabulary beyond immediate needs, lack of control of some levels of expression, lack of formal knowledge of grammar, and inexperience with dialects of other regions.

Some of these defects can gradually be eliminated by the individual himself if he has enough desire and will to work. For example, one can teach oneself how to read—or how to read better—by simply reserving a certain amount of time for reading every day. By keeping a dictionary at hand as one reads, one can gradually increase one's vocabulary. It is also perfectly possible to "learn grammar" by studying a grammar book. Writing, stylistic levels, and dialectal variation are harder to learn by oneself though even here it is possible to learn much by observing various speakers and studying various styles encountered in one's reading. Certain aspects of writing, for example, can be self taught. Spelling, including the use of written accents, can readily be learned from any good grammar or dictionary once its importance as an indicator of literacy has been acknowledged.

Inservice Training. Most school systems are willing to organize inservice workshops to assist teachers in improving their qualifications. Neighboring colleges and universities can help by offering courses in response to specific needs. And the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) provides for summer and year-long institutes for the same purpose. Yet teacher-preparing institutions have done relatively little so far to train speakers of X languages to teach in their first language. In the summer of 1961 Gérard Brault directed at Bowdoin College the first institute for native speakers of French.[67] In 1962 George Ayer of the University of Texas at Austin directed an institute for native speakers of Spanish, and in the summer of 1968 one of the present writers, Theodore Andersson, directed—also in Austin—an institute for native Spanish-speaking elementary-school teachers planning to teach in bilingual programs. Several bilingual institutes are being held as this monograph goes to press, and their number will surely increase each year, with growing attention to curricular areas other than language arts.

Preservice Training. Teacher-preparing institutions are traditionally responsible for the education of teachers of non-English languages for all levels, but they have not been able to fill today's needs, either in quantity or in quality. Can bilingual education, which renews hopes once again for effective language and cultural education, succeed where previous ventures have failed?

Colleges and universities provide only faint prospects of success. Despite the statement of Teacher Qualifications, the availability of Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students, and the elaboration of Guidelines for the Preparation of Teachers,[68] there has been only slight improvement in the number and quality of language teachers produced in our country. Only a few universities have tried to implement the Guidelines, and fewer still have addressed themselves to the task of how to supply enough competent teachers for the bilingual programs which are growing by geometrical progression.

The few that are making resolute efforts to help meet the need deserve much credit. We have already mentioned examples of universities that specialize in the training of ESL teachers; many of the teachers so trained, however, are foreigners preparing to return to their respective countries to teach English. Another praiseworthy enterprise is that called Teacher Excellence for Economically Deprived and Culturally Differentiated Americans, directed by Dr. Guy C. Pryor of Our Lady of the Lake College, San Antonio, Texas. This is a teacher training program especially designed for prospective bilingual teachers who, without the help provided by this program, would not be able to go to college. A similar program under the direction of Dr. Dorothy Hurst Mills is in operation in Chapman College, Orange, California. By way of further examples, the University of Alaska is deeply concerned with the Eskimos, Alaskan Indians, and Aleuts; Northern Arizona University at Flagstaff is developing teaching materials for Hopi and Navajo; the University of Hawaii is a natural center for Japanese, Chinese, Korean, Philippine, Malaysian, and Samoan studies, among others.

Transforming Potential into Supply. We have in New York, Chicago, Miami, and the Southwest vast numbers of authentic speakers of Spanish, many of whom could if interested become teachers. It would take a resolute effort on their part, for many have not had the kind of education that would immediately enable them to enter the teaching ranks. But they already have some qualifications which most present teachers of Spanish can never acquire. Their speech is authentic, and in many ways they also think, feel, and act like Hispanics; that is, they can represent Hispanic culture authentically. What they don't know they can learn with patience, interest, and hard work.

"What is the place in foreign language teaching for a person who would teach his mother tongue?" inquire Bruce Gaarder and his Committee. "Opinion has it that such persons are often weak in methodology, often fail to understand the young American learner. Too, there is a current illusion that the N-EMT [non-English mother tongue] speaker's deviations from the 'standard' dialect are more grievous and less acceptable in the classroom than the 'pure' (untainted by ethnicity and social class distinctions) rash of errors which mark the tongue and pen of many teachers to whom the foreign language is still foreign. The authors of this report believe that the potentials of the native speaker and of the non-native speaker are equally high as language teachers, and that facilities are now available to make them equally competent."[69]

Given this situation, one wonders why teacher-preparing institutions do not organize special programs that would attract more of these promising young people into preparing themselves as fully qualified bilingual teachers.[70] Use of the MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests would help teacher trainers to determine quickly in what areas candidates need further training. By exempting them from further work in areas in which they can demonstrate adequate knowledge and skill, and by guiding them in areas where help is needed, teacher trainers could turn out competent teachers in a minimum of time.[71]

Some state departments of education have been sensitive to the need of developing effective procedures for certifying teachers on the basis of tested proficiency in lieu of course credits. New York State was the first, in May 1963, to use the MLA Teacher Proficiency Tests for this purpose. Other states using a similar procedure are Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Delaware, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and California.[72]

Recruitment and Selection of Bilingual Teachers. From the present sparse but hopefully increasing supply the superintendent of schools, the director of personnel, the coordinator of the bilingual program, and the school principal must make their selection of teachers. They are presumably all experienced in judging character, personality, and academic credentials. But unless they are native speakers of X or have themselves received a sound education in X, they have an inadequate basis for judging a candidate's qualifications in X. Under these circumstances they would be well advised to require that prospective teachers submit scores on the MLA FL Proficiency Test for Teachers and Advanced Students. Such scores provide a profile, revealing in which areas a candidate is strong or weak. In the case of weaknesses the superintendents may wish to prescribe remedial work and a re-examination at the end of a year.

The wide use of these tests would also enable school districts to identify for preparing institutions weaknesses in their teacher preparation program, thus laying the groundwork for a standardization and improvement of preservice training.

The Use of Foreign Teachers. Some years will be required to increase the educational opportunities for the many speakers of Spanish, French, Portuguese, Chinese, and Japanese who may wish in the future to qualify for a teaching position in a bilingual program. How to staff these programs in the meantime is a problem. One tempting solution is to use teachers that we might recruit in Spain, Spanish America, Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippines, France, French Canada, Portugal, Brazil, Taiwan, and Japan, who would be relatively well educated, trained to teach, and highly motivated. The availability of the MLA Teacher Proficiency Tests can greatly facilitate such an arrangement. But using these new recruits would be a delicate matter. The whole summer preceding the beginning of teaching should be used for orientation of the foreign teachers and as an opportunity for native and foreign teachers to get acquainted and to plan together. In addition, preparations should be made with great care to prevent the cultural shock which would be only natural as foreign teachers are transplanted into an entirely new setting. Once there are signs of cultural shock, it is too late to remedy the situation. For this reason someone must be designated in advance–from the staff or, better, from the community–to take measures to prevent a feeling of disorientation. The very challenge of making a foreign teacher feel at home and of learning another point of view is a valuable part of intercultural education.

V. *Evaluation*

We suggest that a program of evaluation should include teacher qualifications, children's learning, and the total effectiveness of the bilingual program.

Teacher Qualifications. We assume that present procedures for appraising the English-speaking teacher's qualifications to teach English-speaking children are adequate. The English-speaking teacher who teaches ESL or other subjects to X-speaking children needs to have special knowledge and skills, as yet undefined, for which special tests do not yet exist. It is to be hoped that the National Council of Teachers of English, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), the Center for Applied Linguistics, or some other organization will, following the example of the Modern Language Association, undertake to prepare a statement of qualifications and the development of suitable evaluation instruments.

For teachers who will teach in the X language, we have already stated that tests exist in five languages (French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish) for measuring listening comprehension, writing, applied linguistics, culture and civilization, and professional preparation.[73] Before beginning his teaching, such a teacher should as a matter of course take the Modern Language Association Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students and make his scores a part of his credentials. Periodically, and on a voluntary basis, as he improves his knowledge and skill in this area, he may wish to retake the tests and update his scores.

As a quality control every five years or so a school board may wish to require its ESL and X-language teachers to take new tests and record their scores.

Children's Learning. At the beginning of each school year diagnostic tests should be used to determine the relative strength of the children's two languages. Classroom teachers can do this informally, but in most cases normed tests are preferable.[74] In this way it will be possible to record the factor of language balance each year.

The regular annual testing (in English), which is a traditional school procedure, should of course be continued. Any new tests which are introduced to complement the regular tests should avoid overlapping, so that total testing time is not excessive.

Beginning toward the end of the first year of a bilingual program, tests in the X language, parallel to the standard achievement tests in English, should be administered and the scores recorded and analyzed. Such tests will need to be developed and carefully adapted to the language usage of the particular area.

The Commonwealth of Puerto Rico has contracted with the Educational Testing Service for the development of tests in Spanish. Reading tests in Spanish have already been produced on four levels to cover grades K through 12. The plan is now to develop tests in

Spanish in the various other subjects of the curriculum.

It is perhaps worth pointing out a natural difficulty here. A teacher who teaches, say, social studies in X may be tempted to deviate quite far from the English course of study—perhaps justifiably so—and may therefore wish to test the children's achievement in a way to parallel his teaching closely. The results may or may not correlate with those on a version of the standardized achievement tests translated into X.. Although traditional tests should not be allowed to throttle innovation, neither should they be abandoned thoughtlessly, for results on these tests necessarily serve as a baseline for demonstrating whether children's achievement improves after a bilingual program is introduced. The most incontrovertible way of answering severe critics is often a superior set of scores on tests not designed specifically for the new program on trial.

In-course testing should naturally be done bilingually wherever appropriate, that is, wherever the teaching is done bilingually.

The testing discussed up to this point has to do primarily with children's cognitive learning. Perhaps even more important would be evaluation in the affective area since successful cognitive learning depends largely on children's motivation and attitude. The presence of two ethnic groups makes it particularly important to observe and appraise the children's cross-cultural behavior. As soon as satisfactory instruments are developed,[75] this kind of appraisal should be made annually as a regular part of the total evaluation. In judging children's attitudes and motivation it is essential to keep careful records of attendance and participation in various activities.

The Total Effectiveness of the Bilingual Program. At the end of each year of a bilingual program, at each grade level, and in all subjects taught in the X language or bilingually, the children's achievement should be compared with the corresponding achievement before the inception of the bilingual program.[76]

The classroom teacher is in the best position to judge certain aspects of the program. He should therefore be asked at the end of each year, after using whatever measures he finds suitable, to report in writing his evaluation of the children's progress and of the program design and materials.

Still another valuable piece of evidence is the annual report of the school principal. He is often in a position to evaluate the children's achievement and behavior as compared with former years, and to appraise the morale and effectiveness of the teachers, as well as to judge the overall design of the bilingual program.

Another important means of evaluating total effectiveness is the educational audit suggested by the staff of the U.S. Office of Education. According to their proposal, an impartial evaluator or team of evaluators would visit the program and consider such factors as planning and administration; community support; performance of the school board, school administration, teachers, parents, and children; testing and teachers' and principals' evaluation; and a comparison of the program's outcomes with the stated objectives. The written report of such evaluators would be a token of accountability to the public.

The kinds of evaluation we have suggested involve a great deal of extra work. Who is to do this extra work? Clearly some special provision must be made, for staff members who are already working full time cannot be expected to undertake this additional chore. The normal solution would be the appointment of a testing coordinator who, with one or more assistants as needed, would take responsibility for planning and conducting the evaluation program, for recording and analyzing the results, and for communicating significant outcomes to the superintendent, the school board, and the information officer.

Since tests are in some cases not available or not entirely satisfactory, the school authorities may wish to contract for the services of universities, education service centers, regional educational laboratories, or national testing organizations for the development of needed instruments.

NOTES

[1] Mackey's *Typology* is printed in full in Appendix E. It will be referred to further in our section on Time.

[2] An example is given below, in the discussion on mathematics.

[3] See section 4.1.1 of his *Typology*.

[4] There may be some children who do not speak at all, in any language. We urge that the term *alingual* be reserved for this specific abnormality, and that it not be applied to children who simply do not talk in a teacher's presence, or to those whose grammar and vocabulary do not meet someone's preconceived "standard."

[5] A term used by Charles A. Ferguson in *Study of the Role of Second Languages in Asia, Africa, and Latin America*, Frank A. Rice, ed.

[6] These local languages of America all sometimes go under the general name of Amerindian tongues, but genetically the differences among them are in some cases as vast as the differences among, for example, Indo-European languages.

[7] We are indebted to Ross J. Waddell for this reminder.

[8] See for example Charles Ferguson, "Variant Approaches to the Acquisition of Literacy" (1968).

[9] There are striking cases in which this order is not followed and yet there is no apparent disadvantage to the children. In St. Lambert Elementary School outside Montreal, E-speaking children are taught to read first in French. In the Hamilton School in Mexico City, the children are taught to read English before their native Spanish. In that same city Spanish–speaking Jewish children in the J. L. Peretz School read in both Yiddish and Hebrew before they do in their dominant language, Spanish. All these cases are atypical, however–or at least not representative of the kind of children for whom the BEA was written–for they are all middle-class or above, none are limited in their ability to speak the national language, and all are very highly motivated by some special factors (religion, economic, or cultural). Further, there is no certainty that the children in the schools mentioned would not have learned literacy even faster if they had been taught in their strongest language first.

[10] See section 4.2 on "The Status of the Languages" in Mackey's *Typology*, Appendix E.

[11] We have read with profit the informative unpublished paper by Willard Walker entitled "An Experiment in Programmed Cross-Cultural Education: The Import of the Cherokee Primer for the Cherokee Community and for the Behavioral Sciences" (March 1965, 12 pages mimeographed). Walker says (p. 3), in connection with literacy in Cherokee, that "by the 1880's the Western Cherokee had a higher *English* [emphasis added] literacy level than the white populations of either Texas or Arkansas." It would be interesting to know whether these Cherokees who outstripped the whites in reading English had previously learned to read through the less bizarre spelling system of their native Cherokee, where one symbol stands consistently for one syllable.

[12] These ideas are based on a communication from Sarah Gudschinsky.

[13] There is abundant literature on early language learning, e.g., François Gouin, *L'art d'enseigner et d'étudier les langues* (1880); Charles E. Osgood, *Method and Theory of Experimental Psychology* (1953), Chapter 16, "Language Behavior;" Wilder G. Penfield and Lamar Roberts, *Speech and Brain Mechanisms* (1959); Ruth Hirsch Weir, *Language in the Crib* (1962); Ursula Bellugi and Roger W. Brown, *The Acquisition of Language* (1964); Eric H. Lenneberg, *Biological Foundations of Language* (1967).

[14] The following are a sampling of the extensive bibliography on this subject: Jules Ronjat, *Le développement du langage observé chez un enfant bilingue* (1913); Werner F. Leopold, *Speech Development of a Bilingual Child* (1939-1949); Désiré Tits, *Le mécanisme d'une langue se substituant à la langue maternelle chez un enfant espangol âgé de six ans* (1948); Modern Language Association of America, "Childhood and Second Language Learning (1956); Theodore Andersson, "The Optimum Age for Beginning the Study of Modern Languages" (1960); H. H. Stern, ed., *Languages and the Young School Child* (1969).

[15] The question is explored by Noam Chomsky, among others, in "Language and the Mind" (1968).

[16] See also Gaarder's remarks on second language learning under Methods and Materials (Methodology in Early Stages), p. 106.

[17] Salisbury, "Cross-Cultural Communication and Dramatic Ritual" (1967), pp. 82-83.

[18] See, for example, Sirarpi Ohannessian, ed., et al, *Reference Lists of Materials for English as a Second Language,* 1964-1966. Sirarpi Ohannessian is Director of the CAL English for Speakers of Other Languages Program.

[19] The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) is a good general source of information on the existence and addresses of various groups of language teachers. See our Directory for ACTFL's address.

[20] Letter by Gaarder dated February 25, 2969, in his capacity as member of the Executive Council of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese. See also his cogent chapter entitled "Bilingualism" in Walsh (1969).

[21] In Martin Mayer, *Where, When and Why: Social Studies in American Schools*; New York, Harper & Row, 1963.

[22] From notes on an oral presentation by Dr. Dell Felder, Social Studies Program Director, Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

[23] Just how complex bicultural education can be is suggested by Wayne H. Holtzman, "Cross-Cultural Studies in Psychology" (1968) and Holtzman, Díaz-Guerrero, Swartz, and Lara Tapia, "Cross-Cultural Longitudinal Research on Child Development" (1968). Complicating factors in such cross-cultural studies as the one here described–comparing 300 Mexican children between six and thirteen years of age with a like distribution of American children–are national differences, language differences, and subcultural differences, not to mention the complexity of individual behavioral differences. Despite the difficulties, the authors emphasize the importance of such research if we are to overcome ethnocentrism.

[24] Dell Felder. See note 17.

[25] This two-volume work entitled *International Study of Achievement in Mathematics* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967) was edited by Torsten Husen. But its findings have been questioned by at least one reviewer. S. S. Willoughby, ("Who Won the International Contest?) in *Arithmetic Teacher*, Vol. 15, pp. 623-629, November 1968, explains why he feels the study showed neither superiority on the part of the Japanese nor inferiority on the part of any other group. His review also points up some of the difficulties involved in cross-national research.

[26] Lesser, et al. (1965).

[27] Giles, "Mathematics in Bilingualism–a Pragmatic Approach" (1969).

[28] Ibid., p. 22.

[29] Ibid.

[30] Ibid., p. 26.

[31] Treviño (1968).

[32] In the quote from Lee Salisbury under Language Arts, E for Dominant-X Children. See note 17.

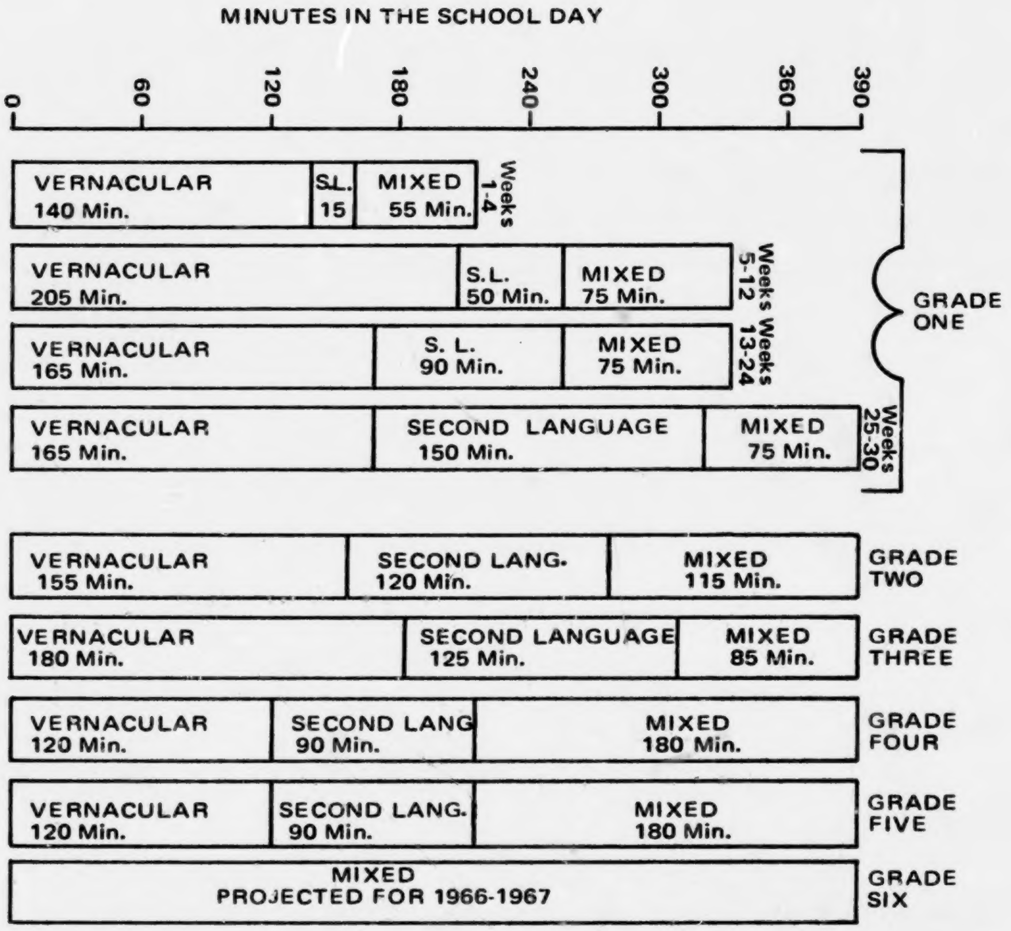
[33] Asher (1965).

[34] See Appendix E.

[35] A comparison with Professor Mackey's original drawing in his section 2.6 will make plain our adjustments. In an effort to be specific we have changed his A(cculturation) and I(rredentism) to E(nglish) and X (any other language spoken natively in the Unites States). Hoping to make this drawing quickly understandable to the reader who has not read Mackey in full, we have also added a few words to the various labels, and we have replaced his C(omplete) by A(brupt) to indicate non-gradual change. Further, his definition of the DDM category (his section 2.6.7) is reinterpreted by us. See the note that follows.

[36] In distinguishing between "Different" and "Equal," Mackey does not speak of allotment of *time* for each language, as we have, but rather of *subjects* treated in each one. We have preempted his Different-Equal to refer to time only, in order to make room for the question of complementary or overlapping assignment of subjects at the next level below.

[37] Reproduced from Gaarder, "Organization of the Bilingual School," (1967):



TIME DISTRIBUTION PATTERN—Coral Way Elementary School

VERNACULAR and SECOND LANGUAGE (S. L.) mean the use of these as mediums of instruction. MIXED in grades 1-3 means physical education, art and music only. In grades 4-6 MIXED also means combined classes of Anglos and Cubans alternating 3 weeks of each grading period working through English only, and 3 weeks working through Spanish only, in all subjects.

[38] La Fontaine and Pagan (1969).

[39] Mackey and Noonan (1952) describe how Polish refugee children were absorbed into the British schools after World War II. An experiment was made to find the quickest and best way of preparing the Polish speakers to continue their schooling in the new medium of English.

[40] Except in areas where bidialectalism in E seriously hampers communication or otherwise sets up hindrances to learning in school. This is a field that is increasingly attracting attention. A four-day conference on Social Dialectology and Its Pedagogical Implications is planned for November 1969, under sponsorship of the Center for Applied Linguistics. "An orientation in the study of the stratification of languages toward social, rather than regional, differences represents a new trend in linguistics....Roger W. Shuy will be chairman." (*The Linguistic Reporter*, Vol. II, no. 1, February 1969, pp. 5-6.) Shuy is general editor of the Urban Language Series, published by the Center for Applied Linguistics, containing so far five volumes (1966-69). See also William A. Stewart, *Non-Standard Speech and the Teaching of English*, Language Information Series no. 2; Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1964.

[41] See Lambert and Macnamara (1969, in press); and Lambert, Just, and Segalowitz (1969).

[42] "Splitting" and "allotting" as used here refer to whether a subject is to be taught in two languages or in one, as in our section on Content.

[43] We feel impelled to urge that the operation *should* be behind the scenes. A thing that has appalled us, on visits to numerous classrooms, is the frequency with which teachers have spoken to us, as visitors, about the children—in the hearing of the children—in ways that were derogatory or that could cause some children to feel shame, about their background, their parents, their "disadvantage." We think the things children are apt to remember longest about an adult's attitude are those that he reveals when not talking directly to the children.

[44] This pattern is shown in Figure 14 of the section on Time. Some of its advantages are discussed there.

[45] See Gaarder et al. (1965), pp. 79-81.

[46] Fishman (1965), *Language Loyalty....*

[47] Sarah Gudschinsky's reminder of these opportunities is gratefully acknowledged.

[48] For illustrations of such cultural differences between home and school see Center for Applied Linguistics (1969).

[49] Zintz (1969), p. 3.

[50] Ibid.

[51] From a personal communication from Sarah Gudschinsky.

[52] From a personal communication to the authors. See also his "Beyond Grammar and Beyond Drills" (1967).

[53] Gaarder et al. (1965), pp. 58-59.

[54] Wares (1968).

[55] From a personal communication from William F. Mackey.

[56] This college beginners' text was planned by a conference of experienced textbook writers, sponsored by the Modern Language Association, written by a team of specialists, criticized by a large advisory committee, and financially supported by a foundation.

[57] Archibald A. Hill ("The Typology of Writing Systems," in *Papers in Linguistics in Honor of Leon Dostert*, William M. Austin, ed.; Mouton, The Hague, 1967; pp. 92-99) offers a modern and sophisticated means of classification.

[58] This machine, according to our reports, is located in Tahlequah, Oklahoma.

[59] Hill, op. cit., p. 98.

[60] See Appendix S on Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts.

[61] See Ohannessian (1969) for specific recommendations on recruitment and training of teachers of Navajos.

[62] See Appendix H.

[63] Prepared by A. Bruce Gaarder, Chairman, Working Committee II, responsibile for a Report on "The Challenge of Bilingualism," published under the title *Foreign Language Teaching: Challenge to the Profession*, p. 85, Reports of the Working Committees, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1965, edited by G. Reginald Bishop, Jr., and available from The Materials Center, Modern Language Association, 62 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York, 10011, for $2.50.

The second is contained in C. L. Ainsworth, Ed., *Teachers and Counselors for Mexican American Children*. Austin, Texas: Southwest Educational Development Corporation, 1969, pp. 57-60.

[64] For a general treatment of this subject see Macnamara, "The Effects of Instruction in a Weaker Language" (1967).

[65] From a statement by A. Bruce Gaarder in: United States Congress. Senate. *Bilingual Education Program. Hearings...* (1967), p. 52.

[66] For example, Robert A. Hall, Jr., *Linguistics and Your Language*, (1960).

[67] Brault (1962).

[68] Drafted by the Modern Language Association in collaboration with the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification. See Appendix I.

[69] See Gaarder, et al. (1965), p. 92.

[70] An example of such a program, which might serve as a model, is cited by Gaarder et al., pp. 90-91.

[71] For details see Gaarder et all. (1965), pp. 86-92.

[72] Gaarder et al. (1965) further explains the use of these tests and provides, pp. 86-99, a basis for interpreting scores.

[73] See Starr (1962) in our bibliography.

[74] Such tests are under development by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory at Austin, Texas. See also Hoffman (1934), Lambert (1955), Macnamara (1967), Mackey (1967), Savard (1968), and Fishman et al. (1968). For excerpts from the latter see Fishman et al. (1969).

[75] See Hoffman (1945), Pryor (1966), and Lambert et al. (1966).

[76] For examples of this kind of evaluation see Richardson (1968), Treviño (1968), and Giles (1969) in our bibliography.

CHAPTER VII

NEEDED ACTION AND RESEARCH

"What is needed," William Mackey reminds us,[1] "is an overall research policy with a framework of interrelated projects of investigation into the problem of bilingual education in the United States." Bilingual schooling is still in its infancy, and it is too early to speculate about ways in which a comprehensive research policy may be elaborated. Many organizations have an interest in such a policy. For example, the United States Office of Education Bureau of Research is planning a research conference (June 27-28, 1969) as this book goes to press. The Center for Applied Linguistics, which is the ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics (including bilingualism), has sponsored numerous research planning conferences, especially those having to do with English as a Second Language and the education of American Indians. Among the regional educational development laboratories engaged in bilingual research and development are the Southwest Educational Cooperative Laboratory of Albuquerque and the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory of Austin. There are also numerous regional education service centers which are active in preparing teaching and testing materials. The Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages has published (1965) an excellent summary report, "The Challenge of Bilingualism." The Southwest Council for Bilingual Education (formerly the Southwest Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) has published several research oriented reports. ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) takes an active interest in bilingualism, as does TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages). Still other organizations interested in bilingualism are the Bureau of Indian Affairs of the Department of the Interior and several state departments of education. For example, the Texas Education Agency has a Department of International and Bilingual Education under the direction of an assistant commissioner of education. And, finally, there is the International Center for Research on Bilingualism at Laval University in Quebec directed by William F. Mackey. It remains to be seen whether these various organizations, each with its legitimate interest, can somehow be brought together into an overall plan for cooperative and non-overlapping research. Surely the need is urgent and time is pressing.

A. *National Needs*

Certain kinds of research and action should be carried on at a national level to ensure as broad a base as possible and to prevent unnecessary duplication and atomization of effort.

Broad Base of Support. Before the tax-paying public will be willing to underwrite the additional cost of bilingual education, it needs evidence that bilingual education is worth the investment. Comparisons of the effectiveness of learning through one or two languages have begun,[2] but such studies need to be replicated and expanded and widely diffused. Case studies of persons who have profited from knowing more than one language need to be carefully assembled and publicized. The assistance of the media is needed to help educate the public to the importance of beginning language learning at an early age and to the value of diversity for American life.

Modifications of State and Federal Laws. Citizenship requirements for teachers should be reviewed with the purpose of making possible the short-term use of foreign exchange teachers.

Bilingual programs have been hampered in many states by laws prohibiting classroom instruction in non-English languages. Several states have already amended their laws to allow teaching in two languages. Other states with similar constraints may wish to amend laws which prevent bilingual education from being introduced in their schools.

The Bilingual Education Act may need to be amended in the light of experience. As written, it fulfills two functions: First, it is part of anti-poverty legislation, and, second, it supports educational innovation. Congress may wish to consider evidence submitted to it by knowledgeable individuals or groups before deciding whether or not to change the relative emphasis of these two factors. For either purpose, it is hoped that Congress may in the future find it possible to bring the appropriations closer to the funds authorized.

Identification of Models. A small number of "models" or exemplary programs should be selected as specimens of different program types. These programs should be provided with sufficient funds to make it possible for them (1) to disseminate full documentation as well as succinct brochures on their operations; and (2) to augment their staffs and to make whatever physical adjustments are indicated, to accommodate large numbers of visitors and observers. Otherwise, successful programs are drowned by their own success. Contracts to serve as "models" should be for long enough terms (three to five years) to justify the added expenditures and to provide some stability to the school systems rendering this service.

Program Design Experimentation. Mackey's typology provides the groundwork for pursuing rational lines of experimentation in design. All the existing bilingual programs in our country should be canvassed to collect the needed data. Based on these actual programs any required adjustments in his instrument should be made. It will then be possible to study the relative effectiveness of different program design in specific kinds of circumstances, and to provide information to communities that are seeking reasonable avenues of change.

Curriculum Materials. As mentioned earlier, materials, whether plentiful, as they are in some languages, or scarce, as they are in many, constitute a challenging problem.

The range of material needs is enormous, and yet it ought not to be overwhelming once the decision is reached that the work must be done. The first order of priority is for a full set of instructional materials in all curricular subjects for each major linguistic group, beginning with the earliest levels and proceeding through grade twelve. In languages such as French or Spanish, provision should be made for immediate importation of suitable texts, even though such books will be imperfectly suited to an American population. Difficulties of procurement from abroad may have to be overcome. In any case, material will have to be evaluated and, if selected, adapted for local use. In this task regional or national organizations can be of assistance. School systems are urged to call on regional education service centers or laboratories or on one of their national professional organizations for help, first in developing criteria and then in evaluating materials.[3] This is a field in which some centralization would be advantageous, for the importation, selection, and possible adaptation of suitable materials is a very large undertaking for a local school administration. Spanish alone is likely to yield more than a dozen sets. Some of the languages involved may be taught as second languages in certain bilingual countries. If so, materials used in those countries may be suitable to bilingual minorities in the United States.

Considering the age, motivation, and purpose of the learner, should materials be based on vocabulary count, structure, analysis, situation, and/or interest? These are questions basic to the construction of a rational curriculum and therefore deserve extensive research.

Materials will have to be developed for languages or curricular areas where they are lacking. Individual teachers may be identified who have a special gift for preparing materials, and such teachers should be all means be freed to work in the area of their talents. It is the opinion of the present writers, however, that an individual teacher or, indeed, teams of local teachers can rarely be expected to produce materials which are of professional quality. It is to be hoped that professional organizations will come forward and take the initiative in organizing the vast cooperative effort necessary to establish criteria and to create quality materials.

Subordinate to this preparation of main-line materials, there should be changes made to salvage as many young minds as possible by introducing instruction in the mother tongue at various levels throughout the school system. For example, the elaboration of a complete set of materials for grades K to 12 in Spanish should not preclude immediate selection of materials to be used at the junior or senior high school levels for youngsters who were born too early to reap the full benefits of this new procedure.

The relationship between good and inspiring education and bilingual education needs to be explored. It would be unreasonable to claim that any given curricular innovation will be sufficient to cure the fundamental ill of irrelevance in education, but bilingual schooling could be an effective contribution to combat irrelevance.

The process of preparing or borrowing and adapting materials from other countries will, hopefully, broaden the horizon of our professional educators and pave the way for improving our materials as a result of the borrowed ideas. Even a cursory examination of a second-grade Chilean book, for example, showed us that Chilean children of seven years of age are advanced far beyond their United States counterparts in reading material considered suitable for second graders. R. J. Waddell, an experienced elementary-school principal, describes present readers as trivia resulting from an obsessive control of vocabulary. Research designed to compare the effectiveness of these readers with those containing stories of classical content might be illuminating. Waddell thinks the latter would have high interest value for young children and would be strongly motivating. If, on the other hand, the difference in achievement level expected of a seven-year-old is attributable to the greater ease with which one learns to read Spanish, the possibilities of using this language as the primary route to an educated mind among our own Spanish-English bilinguals ought to be evident.

Experience and research have shown that bilingual children have not made adequate progress with typical educational materials currently in use; typical books in use are more abstract than we realize, requiring considerable knowledge of both American culture and the English language. New materials suitable to the child's linguistic development, language skills, cultural background, age, and interests need to be investigated. Since some minorities, including some bilingual children, tend to score higher on performance tests of ability than on verbal tests, we should explore the possibility of reaching the children with non-verbal performance-oriented learning materials, those emphasizing learning by seeing, doing, and participating.[4]

Comparative Cultural Studies. In communities where two ethnic groups live together it is essential, if they are to understand each other, that sound and tactful comparisons of their value systems be made.[5] Such comparisons of cultural differences should first be made for the salient features of cultures as a whole on as broad a base as possible. For example, a comparison should be made in broad terms between "Anglo" and "Hispanic" values. Specific variations in either culture, as it manifests itself in a given locale, could be seen in better perspective by local workers if an overall framework were sketched out first. Such a task of cultural comparison is exceedingly difficult, especially with those cultures identified with "languages of wider communication." Local districts with limited resources can hardly be expected to make the fine adjustments needed if no working model has been drafted. Our schools and communities are in a state of crisis, and it is incumbent on the best minds among our social scientists, as well as on all others with usable expertise, to make some proposals, however imperfect.

We cite only a few examples. It has been suggested that different cultures emphasize different styles of learning. To what extent does our undifferentiated school technology need to be modified to take into account these different learning styles so that particular ethnic groups can achieve optimum learning? (Rudolph Troike)

Role identification for different cultures also needs explanation before it can be used advantageously as a tool by the teacher. The appropriateness of various emotional climates in the classroom, depending on different cultural backgrounds, needs to be made explicit. Social patterns, leadership models, and optimal grouping patterns for each culture should be suggested.

Linguistic Studies. Detailed linguistic analyses of English and each of the other native languages in an American bilingual program should be undertaken to provide critically-needed information for curricular decisions about sequence and methods of presentation. Also, we need much more information on the English and non-English language development of the children of non-English-speaking parents. (Rudolph Troike)

Beyond what age is it difficult to master more than one language without accent? It has been supposed that age ten, approximately, is the critical age, but an extensive survey of persons who have been born to another language and who have transferred to an English-speaking environment at various ages would be desirable.

Integrated Studies of the Bilingual Child. Although a considerable amount of study has been devoted to the development of the child of the majority culture, little has been done to identify the special characteristics of the bilingual learner. With regard to mental growth, not only the bilingual's linguistic patterns but also his acquired concepts need research because they have been conditioned by his cultural background. What is the total effect of exposure to two cultures? There is some evidence to indicate that bilingual children do not learn concepts in the same way or at the same rate as the majority culture child. We need to research both the cause and the effect.

There is increasing research evidence that the younger the child, the greater his learning potential. This provides a rich field for investigation of early learning in the home. Will the planting of appropriate English and non-English books in the home result in earlier learning of reading? Will listening to selected music have a beneficial attitudinal effect? Will an early opportunity to work with art materials yield positive effects later? Should not the bilingual potential of Head Start programs be tested experimentally?

Testing. Teaching and testing are always two sides of the same coin. Each needs to be considered in connection with the other, and each needs to be constantly improved. Due in part to the difference in goals and objectives of local schools with minority groups and of national test publishers, standardized tests generally do not give an accurate measure of the achievement of bilingual children. Linguistic and cultural differences need to be considered in developing additional instruments more appropriate for measuring the achievement of the populations.

More work is needed on attitudinal testing, since the development of positive attitudes toward self and others is essential both for teachers and for children of minority groups who must adjust to their environment.

The validity of present occupational aptitude tests when applied to minority group children needs careful study.

Teachers. In every state, certification of teachers needs to be closely scrutinized. Simply stated, persons who are qualified to teach should be certified, and those that are not, should not. Chief offenders of this rule are (1) universities and colleges that recommend certification of individuals who have simply collected the requisite number of grade points in an approved combination of college courses without regard to their total preparedness to teach, and (2) school systems that continue to accept such paper-prepared products without reporting back to the colleges their inadequateness for the jobs to be done. School administrators on close terms with their preparing institutions should make their needs known directly. Colleges are prone to believe they are doing well unless told otherwise. If this is not productive, school administrators should inform the state education agency, in its certification capacity, of specific areas of weakness in newly-trained teachers. State institutions, in particular, can quite reasonably be required to pay special attention to the specific educational needs of the states that support them.

State agencies should take whatever measures are required to make it possible for qualified persons to be certified, with or without credits from institutions. Ways of judging qualifications of bilingual teachers have been devised, as we explained in Chapter IV, The Program. Such means are useless, however, if they are not implemented.

B. *Local Needs*

Although educators in bilingual education need a broad consciousness of what is involved and many kinds of scholars will be needed to do special tasks at regional and national levels, the eventual focus should be on the individual child who is in school in any one of the many bilingual areas of the United States – primarily the non-English-speaking and secondarily the English-speaking child. This is where action and research come together, and it is the most difficult plane of all.

We have seen what expertise is needed for comparison of cultural and linguistic differences in abstract, general terms. Let no one think the adaptation of the general–when it is prepared – to one local situation is any less exacting. This is perhaps where our educational system encounters its greatest difficulties today. We have put our efforts in efficient, economical style, into the nation as a whole, expecting adjustments to take place where they are called for. Instead, the very power of our efficiency has begun to overrule us. We find ourselves being reshaped to fit the norm, rather than altering the norms to fit our own legitimate differences. Having been extraordinarily successful in establishing our unity, we must now shift our weight and begin to emphasize our diversity, lest we lose it. We must consider the uniqueness of every local school district. What action and research are needed, at this level, to improve the education of all our children?

Local Survey and Analysis. Essential to a carefully planned bilingual program is a comprehensive survey to determine who the pre-school and school-age children of the community are. When completed, the survey should reveal the economic, social, political, linguistic, and cultural status of the community as a whole as well as how individual children and families fit into the total community picture. Such a report should be prepared by competent specialists, and should certainly involve social scientists (from sociology and anthropology, political science, economics, and history) and linguists (those knowledgeable about X in its multiple facets and varieties, and those specialized in English). These data and interpretations should then be reviewed by persons responsible for school planning, in consultation with the disciplinary specialists, to find ways of fitting the parts of this mosaic together into one or more plans for changes in the schools.

Nor can the community be expected to remain static. Provision needs to be made, therefore, for periodic reassessment of who the current school children are and of what their educational needs and aspirations are.

We cannot go into detail here about the kinds of studies that should be done in depth in each community with a bilingual population, but a few suggestions may illustrate.

What is the size of the local children's active and passive vocabulary at age six? The Seashore-Eckerson technique should be applied not only to English but also to other languages spoken by the children so that fruitful comparisons can be made.

Among many minority groups (Germans, Italians, and Norwegians, for example), the children, though bilingual, do not speak the "standard language." Research into the local dialect and expecially into the differences between it and the textbook standard or so-called "cultivated usage" will pinpoint likely trouble spots and will help determine teaching strategies. This applies to English as well as to the local X.

How do local mores of the English- and X-speaking populations differ from those considered nationally to be "typical" for that culture? If there are presumed conflicts between them, which of these conflicts are not in effect locally? What additional differences, not foreseen nationally, exist in this particular community?

What community problems does the community itself want its children to be educated to solve?

In conclusion, it is obvious that we have not comprehensively outlined the needed action and research, or perhaps even been conscious of all the facets. We conclude this section therefore by repeating the statement with which we began: "What is needed is an overall research policy with a framework of interrelated projects of investigation into the problem of bilingual education in the United States."

NOTES

[1] In a personal communication to us.

[2] See Richardson (1968) and Treviño (1968).

[3] See for example the *MLA Selective List of Materials* (1962) and especially Appendix 2: Criteria for the Evaluation of Materials, pp. 143-153.

[4] See Jensen (1961, 1968).

[5] See, for example, G. Reginald Bishop Jr., ed., *Culture in Language Learning: Reports of the Working Committees: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1960;* Robert Lado, *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers;* Laurence Wylie, Else M. Fleissner, Juan Marichal, Donald Pitkin, and Ernest J. Simmons, "Six Cultures (French, German, Hispanic, Italian, Luso-Brazilian, Russian): Selective and Annotated Bibliographies," in *Reports of Surveys and Studies in the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages, 1959-1961*, pp. 253-275; Edward Hall, *Silent Language*, and *Hidden Dimension;* Howard Lee Nostrand, "A Second Culture: A New Imperative for American Education," in the College Entrance Examination Board *Curricular Change in the Foreign Languages: A Language Teacher's Handbook;* and Francis Debyser. "The Relation of Language to Culture and the Teaching of Culture to Beginning Language Students," *The CCD Language Quarterly: The Chilton-Didier Foreign Language Newsletter*, Vol. VI, Nos. 1 and 2 (Spring/Summer, 1968).

CHAPTER VIII

BILINGUAL SCHOOLING
IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION AND SOCIETY

Bilingual schooling represents a bold new attempt to remedy serious defects in our way of educating children who enter school with a limited knowledge of English. Stated affirmatively, it aims to equalize the education of all children, whether from English-speaking or non-English-speaking homes. All normal children speak at least one language and are equipped with a usual complement of concepts and affects when they enter school. By taking full advantage of this "readiness" to expand their learning, first in their dominant language and then in their second, proponents of bilingual education aspire to provide all children with an opportunity to learn some or all the subjects through two languages. Such an audacious undertaking cannot be expected to succeed completely overnight. The basic principles of bilingual education need further clarification, curricular designs need to be tested, methods and materials developed, teachers prepared, and the public fully informed. This being so, what results can resonably be expected of this new educational venture–in five years or in twenty-five?

Short-Term Implications for Education

In five years, or shall we say six, in order to consider the whole span of elementary grades, there will have been time to test the soundness of the rationale on which bilingual schooling is based. Programs beginning in 1969-1970 will have had time to prove themselves, and there will be other programs from six to twelve years old. Still others, benefiting from the experience of these, will have started in the interim. Thanks to the Bilingual Education Act, to the genuine interest on the part of many educators, and to the solid support given by some communities, there is assurance of a sufficient *number* of bilingual programs to yield the needed answers.

The question is: Will the *quality* of these programs demonstrate the advantages which their proponents predict? An affirmative answer to this question is by no means assured. For one thing, the establishment of a bilingual program is costly. The cost of all schooling is increasing, and there is no reason to suppose that the establishment of a bilingual program would be an economy as far as money is concerned. Money cost may be the least expensive kind of cost, however, in a society like ours. After a trial period of five or six years, during which a local education agency has received generous federal support, how many communities will be willing to continue successful programs with local taxes? How many school districts will decide that the difficulties of finding enough competent teachers, of locating and assembling adequate teaching and testing materials, of winning community support are impossibly great? How many, after the first blush of enthusiasm has passed, will be willing to keep on?

Given the whims of public opinion, the present writers believe that nothing short of undeniable success will assure bilingual schooling of more than temporary public favor. But we also believe that this promising young movement has in it an educational reform so urgently needed that fears lest we fail cannot be permitted to stand in the way of the most strenuous attempts to succeed.

If bilingual programs are to be of quality to match their promise, it seems reasonable to expect that within six years the following educational benefits can be demonstrated:

1) That non-English-speaking children entering a sound bilingual program in the nursery, kindergarten, or first grade can within the first year build a healthy and confident self-image and can maintain and strengthen this image throughout the years.

2) That the normal non-English-speaking child can learn to read and write his mother tongue in the first grade at the latest and can begin to acquire a permanent taste for reading and learning from books.

3) That this same child can by the end of the first grade have learned enough English to understand nearly everything that is said in English by his teachers and by the English-speaking children; that by the end of the second he will have learned to speak English quite freely; by the end of the third he will be able to read and write English in addition to his first language; and by the end of the sixth he will have reached grade level in English reading and writing and will be able to speak English without an accent.

4) That he will be able to carry the full load of learning in all the subjects of the curriculum first through his home language and gradually through English also, reaching grade level by the end of the grade six, at the latest, in every subject in at least one language, and in two languages in some subjects if not all.

5) That, through the study of his own specific history and culture as well as United States history and culture in general, he will acquire cultural awareness and a sympathetic cross-cultural understanding.

6) That he will feel free to participate in the mainstream of American culture or in both that and his ancestral culture.

7) That the normal English-speaking child in a bilingual program will maintain grade-level standing in all subjects conducted in English.

8) That this same child will, in addition, learn to understand and speak language X at a level appropriate to his age by the end of grade three; and by the end of grade six, will be able to speak X without an accent and to read and write X, again at a level appropriate to his age.

9) That he will be able, in addition to carrying in English the full load of learning in all subjects of the elementary curriculum, to learn at least some subjects of the curriculum through his second language, and by the end of the sixth grade to have achieved a degree of proficiency adequate for pursuing a broad general education.

10) That by studying his own history and culture as well as that of the other ethnic group he will acquire cultural awareness and a sympathetic cross-cultural understanding.

11) That, though belonging to the American cultural mainstream, he will feel comfortable in associating with representatives of the other cultural stream.

12) That the school administration and teachers will succeed in getting the active participation of parents and other members of the community in the program.

Short-Term Implications for Society

In view of the time it takes to accomplish changes in society, expected improvements within a period of five or six years are likely to be very modest indeed. If any perceptible advances at all are observed, a program can be counted as successful.

Within this period of time it is to be hoped

1) That a community, if it has assured itself of the positive educational achievements of its bilingual program, will decide to support it with or without federal assistance.

2) That a community, responding to the informational efforts of the school administration and teaching staff, will begin to understand and therefore support bilingual schooling.

3) That the Bilingual Education Act will have clearly demonstrated its benefits not only for the lower-income strata of our society but also its effectiveness in maintaining and cultivating valuable language and cultural resources of all socioeconomic levels, and that as a result of this demonstration Congress will be moved to broaden the Act in order to help conserve these resources in the national interest.

Long-Term Implications for Education

If all goes well, what educational benefits may reasonably be expected, say twenty-five years from now, near the end of our century? Let us suggest the following, among many:

1) That a variety of curricular designs appropriate to diverse local conditions will have been developed and tested.

2) That the shortage of instructional materials and of testing instruments will have been overcome through the cooperative efforts of teams of specialists and through the unhampered importation of foreign books and materials.

3) That educators will by then have learned, by experience and through research, effective ways of conducting bilingual schooling.

4) That procedures will have been perfected for the identification of special talents in teachers (e.g., special education, materials development, research, public relations, evaluation) and for flexible scheduling to make the best use of such special talents.

5) That teacher-preparing institutions will have found ways of preparing competent teachers or of assessing competencies already possessed by teacher candidates and means of complementing these to complete their preparation to teach.

6) That state departments of education will have worked out a nationwide system of teacher-certification based on demonstrated qualifications, however acquired.

7) that a regular system of teacher exchanges with other countries will have been perfected by federal, state, and local agencies.

8) That satisfactory procedures for school-community cooperation will have been worked out to consist of full accounting by the school to the community and involvement and participation—without interference—by the community in the school's educational program.

9) That an effective system of reporting and disseminating significant information will have been developed, involving local and state newsletters and the use of ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) on the national level.

10) That the difficult problems of articulation will have been solved, so that the junior and senior high schools can effectively build on a bilingual program in the elementary grades.

11) That colleges and universities will have made the necessary educational adjustments to such a serious change in the schools, that they will have recongized the importance of language—any language—both as a subject and as a medium of study and research; and that languages will have been recognized as leading to advanced study not only in literature but also in other fields, notably the social sciences.

12) That bilingual schooling will have been recognized not merely as a new kind of language learning but as a new educational mode and that as such it will have been widely adopted in many monolingual as well as bilingual parts of the United States.

Long-Range Implications for Society

Just as a single bilingual program is expected to have an impact on the local community, so a national expansion of bilingual schooling has certain implications for society as a whole. As suggestive of others, we mention the following:

1) General understanding of the proposition that English is not threatened by the presence of other languages, nor American culture by the presence of other cultures, but rather that our American culture can be greatly enriched by cultural variety.

2) The beginning of a national acceptance of and respect for speakers of other languages and representatives of other cultures or sub-cultures, resulting in wide acceptance of linguistic and cultural pluralism. How desperate the need is for this kind of acceptance and understanding is suggested by the many present social alienations between blacks and whites, rich and poor, old and young, ingroups and outgroups. Remedy of these societal tensions is a top national priority.

3) Wide appreciation of the national need of educated American specialists in many fields who are native or near-native speakers of other languages to help maintain our dialogue and cooperate with other nations, thus protecting our national interests.

4) A concern by all Americans for the elimination of poverty, based on the realization that the educational improvement of the poor (which include many speakers of other languages who are presently handicapped in English) helps to raise the socioeconomic level of the population. A higher income level can in turn benefit education, setting an upward spiral.

5) The improvement of our image at home and abroad, the resulting better cooperation with other nationals, in all fields, and the further development of our many international enterprises.

There has been much talk in recent years of the "explosion of knowledge" and at the same time specialists operating near the frontiers of knowledge complain that the more they learn the more inadequate is their ability to cope with problems that seem to increase at the same accelerating rate.

Let us take a single example. Looking back over our twenty-five years of national experience in the field of foreign aid—the length of time we are now trying to look ahead—Neil H. Jacoby points out[1] that although our efforts have been joined to those of other relatively prosperous nations and though these efforts have had some effect, in about 100 countries of the world, having two thirds of the world's population, the per capita annual income is still under $500. Although 45 less developed countries show an average annual growth of about five percent in the real gross national product (G.N.P.), a rate similar to that of 22 advanced countries, the spiraling population increase cuts the per capita G.N.P. growth rate in half (2.6%).

"The sheer enormity of the problem and a new awareness of its complexities have bred a sense of despair about its solution. Hope for the future has diminished as powerful voices from both the political Left and Right counsel a retreat, if not a withdrawal, from the effort. Not surprisingly, advanced nations have sharply reduced their economic aid and will continue to do so unless a new approach can be found."[2]

Jacoby defines "development" as "a complex socio-politico-economic process whereby the people of a country progress from a static traditional mode of life toward a modern dynamic society."[3] The similarities between this complex problem and the educational problem with which we are concerned in this book are striking. Jacoby points out that underdeveloped countries are free not to enter into an agreement for outside assistance, just as bilingual communities are free not to apply for federal aid under Title VII. Jacoby also defines progress as acceptance of the dynamics of a modern society. Similarly, Miles Zintz contends, as we have seen,[4] that educational progress in our bilingual areas means the acceptance by those who belong to culture X of the cultural values of culture E (e.g., competition, aggressiveness) if they want to join the mainstream. Fortunately this can be done without abandoning traditional values if, as we believe, the human being is versatile and flexible enough to master two sets of values as well as two languages.

Our problem of educational development, like that of international socio-politico-economic development, is complex. It too has its political, social, and economic aspects in addition to the purely educational one. It involves dozens of cultures and sub-cultures in various states of mix with the predominant American culture. The elements we have selected for study are only samples of many problems in need of study. For the problem of international development Jacoby proposes "a new approach" based on a partnership between developed and underdeveloped nations from which both may derive benefits.

The present writers feel that bilingual education represents "the new approach" which gives hope of helping to solve some of the complex problems of American education. As with international development, the chances of success are greatly increased if this new educational venture is conceived and carried out as a partnership in which all parties profit.

NOTES

[1] In an Occasional Paper published by the Center for the Study of a Demoncratic Institutions under the title of *The Progress of Peoples: Toward a Theory and Policy of Development with External Aid*. Santa Barbara, California, June 1969.

[2] Ibid., p. 3.

[3] Ibid, p. 5.

[4] See note 50 under Methods and Materials.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSION

In concluding our study we feel that we have written only an introduction—a very tentative one.

About some aspects of our study we feel confident; the evidence seems conclusive. Our past methods of educating children suffering linguistic handicaps in English have clearly been ineffective. The chief reasons for this seem to be that we have not taken advantage of the child's best instrument of learning—his mother tongue—and that we have failed to create in him a sense of dignity and confidence. In a word, we have not put first things first: We have thought it more important from the outset to teach the non-English-speaking child English than to educate him. We have in short been more interested in assimilating than in educating.

Everyone agrees that in the education of American children English is indispensable. Those who do now know it must learn it. Disagreement comes over the order and method of learning. As we have seen, the mass of evidence shows that, everything being equal, children learn to read and write faster and better in their dominant tongue than they do in a second language. There is also ample evidence that children can learn to read and write a second language more easily and better if they have built confidence in themselves by having become literate first in their native tongue. If, in addition, their English-speaking playmates and teachers treat them with respect and affection, their understanding of themselves, of the meaning of their language, and of their cultural heritage will grow, as will their motivation for further learning.

The new educational vista that the Bilingual Education Act opens is that it obviates the disintegrative choice that millions of "nonstandard" children have faced in our public schools: a choice between the language of their mothers and the language of their country and its schools. That mother-and-country has become cliché should not blind us to the fact that, especially in dealing with young children, we drive a wedge between them at our own peril. When certain identifiable ethnic groups among our people have been confronted with the choice, it has been the schools that have lost. But if the hopes extended by the Bilingual Education Act are realized, our ethnic children can not only maintain and develop their mother tongues but can also learn English better than they have in the past. Results of early bilingual schooling demonstrate that, when a child's learning is properly guided by competent teachers, he can acquire in both languages unaccented spoken command, grade-level literacy, and the means of continuing his education "toward the farthest edge of his talents and dreams."

In this work we have tried to summarize present knowledge concerning bilingual education and to define a point of view, essentially that suggested by the Bilingual Education Act and the Guidelines. A year from now, after the accumulation of experience in a hundred or more bilingual programs, some of which will have been in operation for as long as six years, a preliminary report will be needed on their achievement. Such a report should record essential progress made, and, in the year 1970, redefine the state of bilingual schooling in the United States.

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Defines bilingualism as the habitual use of two languages by the same person and emphasizes the fact that in its purest form the two languages are quite separate.

92. Brophy, William A., and Sophie Aberle. *The Indian: America's Unfinished Business.* Report of the Commission on the Rights, Liberties, and Responsibilities of the American Indian. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1966.

Regarding language problems emphasizes meaning of words in relation to culture and calls attention to the problem the Indian faces in trying to comprehend our tenses, grammar, inflection, and grammatical categories.

93. Brouillette, Benoît. *La pénétration du continent américain par les Canadiens-Français, 1763-1846: Traitants, explorateurs, missionnaires.* Preface by Mr. L'Abbé Lionel Groulx. Collection de l'Association Canadienne-Française pour l'Avancement des Sciences, No. 1. Montréal, Canada: Librairie Granger Frères Limitée, 1939. 242 pp. Bibliographies and notes at end of each chapter.

Historical sketch of the penetration of the American continent by French-Canadians.

94. Broussard, James F. *Louisiana Creole Dialect.* Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College Romance Languages Series, No. 5. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1942. 134 pp. Bibliography, pp. 130-134.

Study of Louisiana Creole phonetics, grammar, idioms, folklore, proverbs and dictons, medical prescriptions, poetry, tales, and a glossary.

95. Brown, Francis J., and Joseph Slabey Roucek, eds. *One America: The History, Contributions, and Present Problems of Our Racial and National Minorities.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. 718 pp. Selected bibliography, pp. 660-701. Revised post-war edition of *Our Racial and National Minorities: Their History, Contributions, and Present Problems*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. 877 pp. Selected bibliography, pp. 781-847.

A comprehensive, although theoretical and now outdated, study of American minority groups. Consists of short articles on each ethnic group followed by a discussion of the activities of minority groups, racial and cultural conflicts, educational problems, and cultural democracy in America.

96. Browning, Harley L., and S. Dale McLemore. *A Statistical Profile of the Spanish-Surname Population of Texas.* Population Series No. 1. Austin, Texas: Bureau of Business Research, The University of Texas, 1964. 83 pp.

Number, growth, geographical distribution, basic population characteristics, education and employment opportunities, occupation and income of the Spanish-surname population of Texas, with comparisons with four other southwestern states.

97. Bruneau, Charles. "Quelques considérations sur le français parlé aux Etats-Unis d'Amérique." *Conférences de l'Institut de Linguistique de l'Université de Paris*, Vol. IV, pp. 21-35. Paris: Librairie C. Klincksieck, 1936.

98. Brussell, Charles B. *Disadvantaged Mexican American Children and Early Educational Experience.* Edited by J. A. Forester and E. E. Arnaud. Austin, Texas: Southwest Educational Development Corporation, 1968. 105 pp. Bibliographies, pp. 89-105.

"The study is divided into four major areas of interest–history and demography, social characteristics, intelligence and intellectual functioning of Spanish-speaking children, and implications for early educational experiences for disadvantaged Mexican American children. A fifth section contains brief descriptions of a number of current projects designed for Mexican American children. A bibliography is included for each section." (p. 85)

99. Buffington, Albert F., and Preston A. Barba. *A Pennsylvania German Grammar*. Allentown, Pennsylvania: Schlechter, 1954. 167 pp.

100. Burger, Henry G. *"Ethno-Pedagogy": A Manual in Cultural Sensitivity, with Techniques for Improving Cross-Cultural Teaching by Fitting Ethnic Patterns*. Albuquerque, New Mexico: Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, Inc., June 1968. 193 pp. Bibliography, pp. 167-180.

Based on a review of around 1500 publications, inspection of some three dozen Southwestern ethnic schools, projects, and laboratory activities, this manual offers a systematic, theoretical, and practical approach to the school as a major institution of culture. Attempts to present the basic information that the teacher-leader must know for an inter-ethnic classroom.

101. Burma, John Harmon. *Spanish-Speaking Groups in the United States*. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1955. 214 pp. Bibliography, pp 199-209.

A survey of Mexican Americans, Filipinos, and Puerto Ricans in the United States. A panoramic view of these minorities and their problems of assimilation and adjustment in American culture, and an analysis of their demography, history, and contemporary sociological, cultural, educational, and economic conditions.

102. Burns, Donald. "Niños de la sierra peruana estudian en quechua para saber español." *Anuario Indigenista*, Vol. XXVII (December 1968), pp. 105-110.

Quechua-Spanish bilingual education programs in Peru.

103. Cahman, Werner J. "The Cultural Consciousness of Jewish Youth." *Jewish Social Studies*, Vol. XIV, No. 3 (July 1952), pp. 195-208.

Presents results from a study of a group of non-orthodox but otherwise ideologically undefined and unaffiliated Jewish teen-agers in the Brownsville section of Brooklyn, in order to contribute to the reformulation of the values of Judaism and Jewish culture in the new frame of reference developed since the creation of Israel.

104. California State Department of Education. *Prospectus for Equitable Educational Opportunities for Spanish-Speaking Children*. Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1967.

105. Callard, J. A. "Bilingualism and the Pre-School Child." *Proceedings of the World Federation of Education Associations*, 1933, pp. 56-58.

Observations based on experiences with English-Welsh bilingualism.

106. Canada. Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism. Preliminary Report. Ottawa: Queen's Printer, February 1, 1965. 211 pp.

Summary of the Commission's experience in personal contact with the public and a setting forth of its provisional conclusions.

*107.——. *Book I: General Introduction: The Official Languages.* Ottawa: Queen's Printer, October 8, 1967. 212 pp.

Origins, background development, and various forms of bilingualism and biculturalism in Canada.

*108.——. *Book II: Education.* Ottawa: Queen's Printer, May 23, 1968. 350 pp.

Linguistic and cultural aspects of education in Canada.

109. Canada. Royal Commission on Education. (Parent Commission) Report in 5 vols. Quebec, Canada: Ministry of Education, 1963-1966.

*110. Canadian Commission for UNESCO. *The Description and Measurment of Bilingualism/Description et mesure du bilinguisme,* edited by Louis Kelley. Pre-prints for the Moncton Seminar (6-14 June, 1967) Proceedings. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press, In Press. 159 pp.

The most worldwide review of interdisciplinary problems and progress in research of bilingualism.

111. Carman, Justice Neale. *Foreign Language Units of Kansas: Historical Atlas and Statistics.* Lawrence, Kansas: The University of Kansas Press, 1962. Maps, tables, bibliography.

112.——. "Germans in Kansas.", *American-German Review,* Vol. XXVII, No. 4 (1961), pp. 4-8.

113. Carrière, Joseph M. "Creole Dialect of Missouri." *American Speech,*Vol. XIV, No. 2 (April 1939), pp. 109-119.

Focuses on the English influence and English loanwords in the Colonial French of Old Mines, Missouri.

114. Carroll, John B. "The Contributions of Psychological Theory and Educational Research to the Teaching of Foreign Languages." *The Modern Language Journal,* Vol. XLIX, No. 5 (May 1965), pp. 273-281.

An address delivered at the International Conference on Modern Foreign Language Teaching, Kongresshalle, Berlin, Germany, September 5, 1964.

115. Carrow, Sister Mary A. "Linguistic Functioning of Bilingual and Monolingual Children." *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders,* Vol. XXII (1957), pp. 371-280.

116. Carter, Thomas P. "A Negative Self-Concept of Mexican-American Students." *School and Society,* Vol. XCVI, No. 2306 (March 30, 1968), pp. 217-219.

117.——. *Preparing Teachers for Mexican American Children.* Las Cruces, New Mexico: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools; and Washington, D. C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, February 1969. 15 pp. Notes, pp. 14-15.

Stresses need for "a new breed of educators–one equipped to make objective appraisals of problems, and to take rational and appropriate steps to encourage their elimination." (p. 14)

*118.——. *Mexican Americans in School: A Study of Educational Neglect* (tentative title). To be published in 1969 or early 1970 by the College Entrance Examination Board, New York.

119. Caskey, Owen L., and Jimmy Hodges. *A Resource and Reference Bibliography on Teaching and Counseling the Bilingual Student.* Prepared and printed through funds provided by Southwest Educational Development Laboratory to the Mexican American Teacher and Counselor Education Programs. School of Education, Texas Technological College, Lubbock, Texas, March 1968. 733 references.

120. Cebollero, Pedro Angel. *La política lingüístico-escolar de Puerto Rico.* Consejo Superior de Enseñanza de Puerto Rico, Publicaciones Pedagógicas, Vol. II, No. 1. Revised, second edition. San Juan, Puerto Rico: Impr. Baldrich, 1945. 145 pp. Bibliography, pp. 142-143.

    Contains a brief history of the language problem in Puerto Rico with a review of the studies related to this problem, an analysis of the social necessity of English.

121. ———. *A School Language Policy for Puerto Rico.* Educational Publication Series II, No. 1. San Juan, Puerto Rico: Superior Educational Council, 1945.

    See Spanish version for annotation.

122. Center for Applied Linguistics. *International Conference on Second Language Problems. Report on Eighth Meeting. Heidelberg, April 26-29, 1967.* Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, February 1968. 47 pp.

    Contains the recommendations, resolutions, and agenda of the conference; with appendices dealing with research, teaching, and the linguistic situations in countries all over the world.

123. ———. *Styles of Learning Among American Indians: An Outline for Research.* Report and Recommendations of a Conference held at Stanford University, August 8-10, 1968. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, February 1969. 36 pp. References at the end of several chapters.

    Proceedings of a meeting of specialists in Psycholinguistics, study of child language, child psychology, Indian cultural anthropology, and related fields, organized to outline feasible research projects to investigate the ways in which the styles of learning employed by Indian groups may be related to the school achievement of the Indian student.

124. Cervenka, Edward J. *The Measurement of Bilingualism and Bicultural Socialization of the Child in the School Setting: The Development of Instruments.* Section IV, *Final Report on Head Start Evaluation and Research: 1966-1967* (Contract No. 66-1), to the Institute for Educational Development, by the Staff and Study Directors: Child Development Evaluation and Research Center. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, August 31, 1967. Mimeographed.

125. ———. *Administration Manual for the Inventory of Socialization for Bilingual Children, Ages Three to Ten.* "Administration Manual for Tests of Basic Language Competence in English and Spanish," Levels I and II. Prepared for the Child Development Evaluation and Research Center (Southwest). Parts of the Final Report to the Office of Economic Opportunity (Contract No. OEO-4115). Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, August 1968. Mimeographed.

    Set of three batteries of experimental instruments developed for use in the study of bilingual programs and other compensatory education programs in Texas.

126. Charles, Edgar B., ed. *Mexican-American Education: A Bibliography*. Prepared for: National Conference on Educational Opportunities for Mexican-Americans, April 25-26, 1968. Las Cruces, New Mexico: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, March 1968. 22 pp.

A selected listing of 90 books, monographs, journal articles, and unpublished papers on the education of the Mexican American, with annotations.

127. Child, Irvin L. *Italian or American? The Second Generation in Conflict*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, for the Institute of Human Relations; London: Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1943. 208 pp. Bibliography, pp. 201-202.

A comprehensive study of the acculturation of Italian immigrants.

128. China Project, Stanford University. *Central South China*. New Haven, Connecticut: Human Relation Area Files, 1956. 874 pp. Bibliography, maps, charts.

A conscientious and quite exhaustive compilation of relevant facts and information.

129. China, Republic of. Ministry of Education, National Institute for Compilation and Translation. *A Study of the Most Frequently Used Vocabulary at the Elementary School Level*. Taipei, Taiwan: Chung Hwa Book Co., 1967. 50 pp. text, 244 pp. charts and tabulations, 36 pp. indices.

The most recent vocabulary study of written literature and exercises at this level. No claim of validity regarding oral vocabulary.

130. Chomsky, Noam. "Language and the Mind." *Psychology Today*, Vol. I, No. 9 (February 1968).

131. Chou, Fa-kao. *A Study of the Chinese Language*. Taipei, Taiwan: Chung-hwa Cultural Publication Enterprises, 1966. 168 pp. Bibliographical footnotes.

This work, by one of the leading Chinese linguists, gives a scholarly overview of the Chinese language, its characteristics, and an introduction to the various approaches to Chinese linguistics.

132. Christian, Chester C., Jr. "The Acculturation of the Bilingual Child." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLIX, No. 3 (March 1965), pp. 160-165.

Here the effect that insistence on spoken English has on bilingual children is studied. The problem of confusion and frustration which exists when a child learns one language and culture from his parents and then must learn another language and culture when he enters school is discussed.

133.___, ed. *Reports: Bilingual Education: Research and Teaching*. See Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers.

134.___, and Robert Lado, eds. *Reports: Our Bilinguals: Social and Psychological Barriers; Linguistic and Pedagogical Barriers*. See Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers.

135. Christian, Jane M. *The Navajo: A People in Transition*. Part One. *Southwestern Studies*, Vol. II, No. 3 (Fall 1964), pp. 3-35; Part Two. *Southwestern Studies*, Vol. II, No. 4 (Winter 1965), pp. 39-71.

An anthropologist-linguist studies sympathetically the Navajo effort to live in two worlds at once, and to try to integrate the best in both into a living whole.

136. ___, and Chester C. Christian, Jr. "Spanish Language and Culture in the Southwest." In Joshua A. Fishman, et al. *Language Loyalty in the U.S.: The Maintenance and Perpetuation of the Non-English Mother Tongue by American Ethnic and Religious Groups.* London, The Hague, Paris: Mouton & Co., 1966, pp. 280-317.

Contains a history of Spanish-speaking peoples in the development of the Southwest; a profile of the contemporary Mexican Americans; a sociocultural analysis with emphasis on language and its relationship to society and culture.

137. Christophersen, Paul. *Bilingualism.* An Inaugural Lecture delivered on Foundation Day, November 17th, 1958, University College, Ibadan, Nigeria. Published for the University College, Ibadan, by Methuen & Co. Ltd., London, 36 Essex Street, W. C. 2. 16 pp.

A study of the nature of bilingualism, with advantages and disadvantages, especially in the individual.

138. Ciarlantini, Franco. "Italian in American Schools." *Atlantica*, Vol. IX, No. 5 (July 1930), pp. 14-15.

Discusses the teaching of Italian in American public and private schools.

139. Cohen, Marcel. *Pour une sociologie du langage.* Sciences d'Aujourd'hui. Paris: Albin Michel, 1956. 396 pp. Bibliographies.

140. Cole, Desmond. "School for Tommorrow–A Dissent." *VISTA*, Vol. IV, No. 4 (January–February 1969), pp. 59-64.

The philosophy of the United Nations International School is described and its implications considered for future mutual understanding and world peace.

141. Coleman, James S., et al. *Equality of Educational Opportunity.* U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. A publication of the National Center for Educational Statistics. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966. 737 pp.

This survey is addressed to four major questions: extent to which racial and ethnic minorities are segregated in schools, availability of factors regarded as good indicators of educational quality, achievement as measured by standardized tests, and relationships between achievement and the kinds of schools attended. Six groups were studied: Negroes, American Indians, Oriental Americans, Puerto Ricans, Mexican Americans, and the "majority" or simply "white" Americans.

142. Colorado Commission on Spanish-Surnamed Citizens. *Report to the Colorado General Assembly: The Status of Spanish-Surnamed Citizens in Colorado.* Denver: State of Colorado, January 1967. 125 pp. Notes and bibliography, pp. 121-125.

Contains statistical, sociological, and psychological data; and makes recommendations in the areas of education, income, poverty, health, housing, and consumer problems.

143. Columbia University. Teachers College. The International Institute of Teachers College. *A Survey of the Public Educational System of Puerto Rico.* Columbia University, Teachers College, New York Bureau of Publications, 1926.

144. Comité Permanent de la Survivance Française en Amérique. *La Vie Franco-Américaine,* published annually from 1938 to 1952.

References on the political, intellectual, and social aspects of life among the French-speaking population of New England.

145. Commission de Coopération Technique en Afrique/Committee for Technical Co-operation in Africa. Colloque sur le miltilinguisme/Symposium on Multilingualism. Deuxième Reunion du Comité Interafricain de Linguistique/Second Meeting of the Inter-African Committee on Linguistics. Brazzaville, 16-21, VII 1962. London: Bureau des Publications CCTA/CTCA Publications Bureau, February 1964.

Discusses educational aspects of multilingualism and linguistic problems of multilingualism, including John B. Carroll's "Some Psychological Considerations Relevant to Bilingualism and Second Language Acquisition: Recent Approaches" and Malcolm Guthrie's "Multilingualism and Cultural Factors." Also includes articles on creole and pidgin languages with emphasis on the African linguistic situation.

146. Conwell, Marylin J., and Alphonse Juillaud. *Louisiana French Grammar. Vol. I: Phonology, Morphology, and Syntax*. Janua Linguarum, Series Practica, No. 1. The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1963. 207 pp. Bibliography, pp. 202-207.

A technical study of the three French dialects of Louisiana, with an introduction giving a picture of the history and education of the Acadians, and a long and up-to-date bibliography on dialectal description and Louisiana French.

147. Cook, Katherine M., and Florence E. Reynolds. *The Education of Native and Minority Groups: A Bibliography, 1923-1932.* United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 12 (1933). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1933.

A 573-item classified bibliography with succinct annotations, a subject and author index. Puerto Rico, Hawaii, the Virgin Islands, the Philippines, the Canal Zone, Samoa, and Guam are included.

148. Coombs, L. Madison. *Doorway Toward the Light: The Story of the Special Navajo Education Program (Lawrence, Kansas, 1962).* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1962.

149. ———, et al. *The Indian Child Goes to School: A Story of Interracial Differences.* Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1958.

This important study involved administering California Achievement Tests to 23,608 pupils attending federal, mission, and public schools, in 11 states. It offered further evidence that Indian pupils do not achieve as well in the basic skill subjects as white pupils and that they fall progressively behind the national norms as they continue in school.

150. Cooper, James G. "Predicting School Achievement for Bilingual Pupils." *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. XLIX, No. 1 (February 1958), pp. 31-36. 8 references.

This study demonstrated that the six intelligence tests examined predicted school success with a degree of accuracy ranging from moderate to high for the Territory of Guam's bilingual pupils.

151. Cordasco, Frank M. "The Challenge of the Non-English-Speaking Child in American Schools." *School and Society,* Vol. XCVI, March 30, 1968, pp. 198-201. Bibliographical footnotes.

Advocates bilingual schooling for preservation of cultural identity.

152.——. "The Puerto-Rican Family and the Anthropologist." *Teachers College Records*, Vol. LXVIII, No. 8 (May 1967), pp. 672-674.
Review of Oscar Lewis' *A Puerto-Rican Family in the Culture of Poverty: San Juan and New York*, New York: Random House, Inc., 1966. 669 pp.

153.——. "Puerto-Rican Pupils and American Education." *School and Society*, Vol. XCV (February 18, 1967), pp. 116-119. Bibliographical footnotes.
Strongly recommends that immediate and effective steps be undertaken to provide special educational programs to meet the needs of the Puerto Rican population of American schools.

154. Cornwell, Elmer E., Jr. "Party Absorption of Ethnic Groups: The Case of Providence, Rhode Island." *Social Forces*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 3 (March 1960), pp. 205-210.
Confirms the hypothesis that the American political party has been an important factor in the integration of successive waves of immigrants into the American political community.

155. Cotnam, Jacques. "Are Bilingualism and Biculturalism Nothing But a Lure?" *Culture*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 2 (June 1967), pp. 137-148.
Discusses the French-Canadians' desire for cultural survival.

156. Covello, Leonard. "The Italians in America." *Italy-America Monthly*, Vol. I, No. 7 (July 15, 1934), pp. 11-17.

157.——. *The Social Background of the Italo-American School Child: A Study of the Southern Italian Family Mores and Their Effect on the School Situation in Italy and America.* Edited and with an introduction and notes by Francesco Cordasco. Leiden, The Netherlands: E. J. Brill, 1967. 488 pp. Bibliography, pp. xxv-xxx.
A valuable study by an experienced educator giving a deep insight into the way of life of a major ethnic group and the educational opportunities given to it in the context of poverty and tradition.

158.——, with Guido D'Agostino, *The Heart is the Teacher*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958. 275 pp.
The romanticized autobiography of Leonard Covello, who has devoted his talent and experience to solving the educational problems of migrant children in New York, Italians and Puerto Ricans in particular.

159. Cumberland, Charles C. *The United States-Mexican Border: A Selective Guide to the Literature of the Region*. Supplement to *Rural Sociology*, Vol. XXV, No. 2 (June 1960). Ithaca, New York: Rural Sociological Society, 1960. 236 pp.

160. Dadabhay, Yusuf. "Circuitous Assimilation Among Rural Hindustanis in California." *Social Forces*, Vol. XXXIII, No. 2 (December 1954), pp. 138-141.
Shows that the assimilation of East Indian immigrants follows the pattern of that of Mexican Americans, whose subculture is more immediately accessible to them than is the dominant American culture.

161. *Daedalus*, Vol. XC, No. 2 (Spring 1961). Special issue dedicated to "Ethnic Groups in American Life." 211 pp.

A collection of ten articles dealing with the problems of assimilation and education of minority groups.

162. Dakin, Julian, Brian Tiffen, and H. G. Widdowson. *Language in Education; the Problem in Commonwealth Africa and the Indo-Pakistan Sub-Continent*. The Language and Language Learning Series, Vol. XX. London: Oxford University Press, 1968. 177 pp.

Three studies about the choice of the medium of instruction. The first two deal with the evolution of an educational language policy. The third study suggests an alternative approach to the teaching of English as a second language in Africa and India.

163. D'Amours, Ernest R. "Le Collège de l'Assomption de Worcester: son origine et son évolution." *Le Canado-Américain*, Vol. II, No. 4 (1960-1961), pp. 10-17.

Origin and evolution of Franco-American Assumption College in Worcester, Massachusetts.

164. Darcy, Natalie T. "Bilingualism and the Measurement of Intelligence: Review of a Decade of Research." *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, Vol. CIII, Second Half (December 1963), pp. 259-282. 43 references.

A highly critical review of literature on bilingualism as related to intelligence, 1953-63. Discusses studies related to age and background of students, instruments, verbal and non-verbal language, and teaching methods.

165.___. "The Performance of Bilingual Puerto Rican Children on Verbal and Non-Language Tests of Intelligence." *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XLV, No. 7 (March 1952), pp. 499-506.

Discusses the importance of administering both the verbal and the non-language type to yield a valid intelligence score of a bilingual population.

166.___. "A Review of the Literature on the Effects of Bilingualism Upon the Measurement of Intelligence." *The Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, Vol. LXXXII, First Half (March 1953), pp. 21-57. 110-item bibliography.

Emphasizes the importance of the bilingual student's background in interpreting intelligence tests.

167. Dartigue, Esther. "Bilingualism in the Nursery School," *The French Review*, Vol. XXX, No. 4 (February 1966), pp. 577-587. 10 references.

A report on the United Nations Nursery School in Paris. French and English are used as mediums of instruction, but there is no effort to *produce* bilinguals in these languages.

168. Dawes, T. R. *Bilingual Teaching in Belgian Schools*. Cambridge, England: University of Wales Press, 1902. 63 pp.

169. Dawidowicz, Lucy S. "Yiddish: Past, Present and Perfect." *Commentary*, Vol. XXXIII, No. 5 (May 1962), pp. 375-385.

An account of the Yiddish language in the world and its importance in the United States.

170. Diebold, A. Richard, Jr. "The Consequences of Early Bilingualism in Cognitive Development and Personality Formation." In Edward Norbeck, Douglass Price-Williams,

and William M. McCord, eds., *The Study of Personality: An Interdisciplinary Appraisal*, Holt, Reinhart and Winston, Inc., 1968, pp. 218-245. Bibliography, pp. 239-245.

Focuses on the emotional and intellectual psychology of the bilingual.

171.___. "Incipient Bilingualism." *Language*, Vol. XXXVII, No. 1 (January-March 1961), pp. 97-112.

Reexamines two premises of language contact: (1) that the production of "complete meaningful utterances" is the minimal skill necessary in a second language for bilingual status, and (2) that "the form assumed by interference is determined by the structures of the two languages in contact." Proposes that certain sociological factors are equally crucial in determining the form of interference phenomena. The research uses a Spanish-Huave language contact situation.

172. Diehl, Kemper. "San Antonio Classes Uses Two Languages." *Southern Education Report*, Vol. III, No. 3 (October 1967), pp. 16-19.

Describes Spanish-English bilingual education in Carvajal Elementary School of the San Antonio Independent School District.

173. Diekhoff, John S. *NDEA and Modern Foreign Languages*. New York: The Modern Language Association of America, 1965. 148 pp.

Critical study of the NDEA Language Development Program. Contains a summary of NDEA achievements up to that time and a summary of recommendations.

174. Diller, Karl C. "'Compound' and 'Coordinate' Bilingualism–A Conceptual Artifact." A paper presented to the Linguistic Society of America, Forty-Second Annual Meeting, Chicago, Illinois, December 19, 1967. Revised version to be published in *Word*. 13 pp. 9 references.

Argues that compound and coordinate bilingualism are poorly defined notions; that the experimental evidence does not support these concepts; and that there are strong linguistic reasons why these concepts cannot stand.

175. Dimitrijević, J. R. "A Bilingual Child." *English Language Teaching*, Vol. XX, No. 1 (October 1965), pp. 23-28.

Some observations regarding a child with whom one parent spoke English and one parent Serbian.

176. Dinin, Samuel. "The Curriculum of the Jewish School." *American Jewish Yearbook*, Vol. LXIII, 1962, pp. 214-225. 105-item bibliography.

Presents recent trends tending to modernize and update the curriculum of Jewish schools with increasing emphasis on the study of Hebrew. A selected bibliography of Jewish education curricula follows.

177. Ditchy, Jay K., ed. *Les acadiens louisianais et leur parler*. Paris: Librairie E. Droz; Baltimore, Maryland; The Johns Hopkins Press; London: Oxford University Press, 1932.

Author unknown. Contains brief notes on morphology, phonology, extensive glossary, short history (somewhat sentimental); and a list of original Acadian families. See review by William A. Reed, Louisiana French scholar, in *Zeitschrift für neufranzösische Sprache und Literatur*, Vol. LVII (1934), pp. 257-295.

178. Divine, Robert A. *American Immigration Policy, 1924-1952.* Yale Historical Publication, Miscellany, No. 66. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1957. 220 pp. Bibliographical essay, pp. 195-209.

179. *Doble.* Digest of Bilingual Education published by the Early Childhood Bilingual Education Project Office, Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Yeshiva University, 55 Fifth Avenue, New York City, New York 10003.

180. Dodson, C. J. *Language Teaching and the Bilingual Method.* London: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd., 1967. 182 pp.

    Offers practical help to the modern-language teacher through the "bilingual method."

181. Doran, Thomas A. "Spanish-Biology: Final Report." Report No. NDEA–VI–69. Folsom, California: Folsom Unified School District, January 1, 1965. 32 pp.

    Report of the effect on achievement of integrating the elementary and secondary studies of Spanish and Biology.

182. Dorrance, Ward Allison. "The Survival of French in the Old District of Sainte-Genevieve." *The University of Missouri Studies: A Quarterly of Research*, Vol. X, No. 2 (April 1935). 134 pp. Bibliography, pp. 130-133.

    An extensive study of the Creole French Dialect of Missouri, with an analysis of the historical and social background of the French peasants living in the district, followed by an extensive glossary and some characteristic aspects of their folklore.

183. Downs, James F. "The Cowboy and the Lady: Models as a Determinant of the Rate of Acculturation Among the Piñon Navajo." *Kroeber Anthropological Society Papers*, No. 29 (Fall 1963), pp. 53-67.

    Describes the ideals to which these Navajo subscribe which break with their cultural heritage.

184. Dozier, Edward P. "Two Examples of Linguistic Acculturation: The Yaqui of Sonora and Arizona and the Tewa of New Mexico." *Language*, Vol. XXXII, No. 1 (1965), pp. 146-157.

    "These two contrasting acculturative situations, in both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects, appear to be due to the contact situation, one permissive [Yaqui has exhaustive borrowing from Spanish] and the other forced [the Tewa have resisted acculturation]." (pp. 156f)

185. Drotning, Phil. "Norway in Wisconsin." Reprinted from *The Saturday Evening Post* (copyright 1945) in *American-Scandinavian Review*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 2 (Summer 1950), pp. 149-154.

186. Ducharme, Jacques. *The Shadows of the Trees: The Story of the French-Canadians in New England.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943. 258 pp. Bibliography of Franco-American literature, pp. 245-258.

    A romanticized history of the Franco-Americans.

187. Dulong, Gaston. *Bibliographie linguistique du Canada Français.* Quebec, Canada: Les Presses de l'Université Laval, 1966. 166 pp.

188. Dusel, John P., ed. *What Next in Foreign Languages?* A Planning Conference for Improving Instruction and Articulation in Foreign Languages in California Public Schools, October 4, 5, and 6, 1967. San Diego, California: Foreign Language Council, April 1968.

189. Dushkin, Alexander M., and Uriah Z. Engelman. *Jewish Education in the United States: Report of the Commission for the Study of Jewish Education in the United States*. Vol. I. New York: American Association for Jewish Education, 1959. 265 pp.

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190. Edelman, Martin, Robert L. Cooper, and Joshua A. Fishman. "The Contextualization of Schoolchildren's Bilingualism." *The Irish Journal of Education*, Vol II, No. 2 (1968), pp. 106-111.

The contextualized degree of bilingualism measures, one designed to assess the extent to which each language is used, the other to assess relative proficiency in the two languages, were administered to 34 bilingual children of Puerto Rican background.

191. Eichorn, Dorothy H., and Harold E. Jones. "Bilingualism." In "Development of Mental Functions." *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. XXII, No. 5 (December 1952), Chapter II, p. 425.

A general report on the adverse effect of bilingualism on I.Q. taken from two studies: one on New York children of Puerto Rican parentage and the other by Jones and Stewart in Wales.

192. Eikel, Fred, Jr. "New Braunfels German." *American Speech*, Part I: Vol. XLI, No. 1 (February 1966), pp. 5-16; Part II: Vol. XLI, No. 4 (December 1966), pp. 254-260; Part III: Vol. XLII, No. 2 (May 1967), pp. 83-104.

Part I gives a brief history of German settlements in Texas; Part II deals with the phonology of the New Braunfels dialect; and Part III is concerned with its morphology and syntax.

193. Elkholy, Abdo A. *The Arab Moslems in the United States: Religion and Assimilation*. New Haven, Connecticut: College & University Press, Publishers, 1966. 176 pp. Bibliography, pp. 161-172.

Analyzes the historical background as well as the present situation of Arab Moslems in the United States, with detailed statistical data on their number, distributions, activities, characteristics, etc.

194. Ellis, Frances H. "Historical Account of German Instruction in the Public Schools of Indianapolis, 1869-1919." *The Indiana Magazine of History*, Vol. ., Part I: No. 2 (June 1954), pp. 119-138; Part II: No. 3. (September 1956), pp. 251-26; Part III: No. 4. (December 1954), pp. 357-380.

195. Elwert, W. Theodor. *Das zweisprachige Individuum: Ein Selbstzeugnis*. Weisbaden, Germany, in Kommission bei F. Steiner, 1960. 80 pp.

Translation: *The Bilingual Individual: An Autobiographical Statement.*

196. Ernst, Robert. *Immigrant Life in New York City, 1825-1863*. New York: King's Crown Press, 1949. 331 pp. Bibliography, pp. 297-319.

197. Ervin-Tripp, Susan. “Becoming a Bilingual.” Working Paper No. 9, Language-Behavior Research Laboratory. Funded by a grant from the Institute of International Studies, University of California, Berkeley. March 1968. Mimeographed. 28 pp.

The author brings to bear some of the considerations affecting age of learning and the milieu to suggest new directions for research.

198.———. “An Issei Learns English.” See *The Journal of Social Issues.*

199.———. “Language and TAT Content in Bilinguals.” *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. LXVIII, No. 5 (May 1964), pp. 500-507. 17 references.

200.———. “Learning and Recall in Bilinguals.” *American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. LXXIV, No. 3 (September 1961), pp. 446-451.

Italian bilinguals were tested for recall of pictorial material using English and Italian during learning and during recall.

201.———. “Semantic Shift in Bilingualism.” *American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. LXXIV, No. 2 (June 1961), pp. 233-241.

Semantic shift was examined in the color-naming of Navajo bilinguals in comparison with two monolingual groups.

202. Estes, Dwain M., and David W. Darling, eds. *Improving Educational Opportunities of the Mexican-American.* Proceedings of the First Texas Conference for the Mexican-American, April 13-15, 1967, San Antonio, Texas. Austin, Texas: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, Inter-American Education Center, Texas Education Agency, 1967.

*203. Ferguson, Charles A. “Diglossia.” *Word*, Vol. XV, No. 2 (August 1959), pp. 325-340.

Presents the linguistic aspects of a situation where “two varieties of a language exist side by side throughout the speech community, with each having a different role to play.”

204.———. “Variant Approaches to the Acquisition of Literacy.” Paper presented at the Ninth International African Seminar, University College, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, in December 1968.

205. Fishman, Joshua A. “Bilingualism, Intelligence, and Language Learning.” *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLIX, No. 4 (April 1965), pp. 227-236.

206.———. “Bilingualism With and Without Diglossia; Diglossia With and Without Bilingualism.” See *The Journal of Social Issues.*

207.———. “Childhood Indoctrination for Minority-Group Membership.” *Daedalus*, Vol. XC, No. 2 (Spring 1961), pp. 329-349. 49 references.

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208.———. “Degree of Bilingualism in a Yiddish School and Leisure Time Activities.” *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. XXXVI (1952), pp. 155-65.

Considers Yiddish bilinguality, and how it affects the play and other leisure activities of a school population.

209.___. *Hungarian Language Maintenance in the United States.* Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1966. The Uralic and Altaic Series, Vol. LXII, 58 pp. Bibliography, pp. 54-58.

An up-to-date appraisal of past and present Hungarian language maintenance efforts in the United States.

210.___. "Language Maintenance and Language Shift as a Field of Inquiry: A Definition of the Field and Suggestions for Its Further Development." *Linguistics*, No. 9 (1964), pp. 32-70. 90-item bibliography.

Analyzes habitual language use at more than one point in time or space under conditions of intergroup contact.

211.___. "National Languages and Languages of Wider Communication in the Developing Nations." Prepared for delivery as the keynote address at the Regional Conference on Language and Linguistics, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, December 1968. Mimeographed. 23 pp.

Reviews six factors or dimensions which could be used in differentiating between the language problems of three different types or clusters of new nations.

212.___, ed. *Readings in the Scoiology of Language*. The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1968. 808 pp. Bibliographies.

Contains seven readings related to small-group interaction, social strata and sectors, socio-cultural organization, multilingualism, maintenance and shift, and social contexts.

213.___. "Sociolinguistic Perspective on the Study of Bilingualism." *Linguistics, An International Review*, No. 39 (May 1968), pp. 21-49. 51-item bibliography.

Socio-linguistic study of bilingualism focusing upon the functionally different contexts of verbal interaction in diglossic speech communities.

214.___. "Socio-linguistics and the Language Problems of the Developing Countries." *International Social Science Journal*, Vol. XX, No. 2 (1968), pp. 211-225. Bibliography, pp. 222-225.

Analyzes the social and linguistic components of the problems of developing nations, and suggests some socio-linguistic research methods.

215.___. "Some Contrasts Between Linguistically Homogeneous and Linguistically Heterogeneous Polities." *Sociological Inquiry*, Vol. XXXVI (1966), pp. 146-158.

216.___. "The Status and Prospects of Bilingualism in the United States." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLIX, No. 3 (March 1965), pp. 143-155.

Discusses cultural pluralism, bilingualism, and biculturalism. Suggests that a commission on bilingualism and biculturalism be established at the federal, state, and local levels.

217.___. "Varieties of Ethnicity and Varieties of Language Consciousness." In Charles W. Kreidler, ed., "Report of the Sixteenth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies." Georgetown University *Monograph Series on Language and Linguistics*, No. 18 (1965), pp. 59-79.

Studies "parallelism between social complexity and complexity of linguistic situations."

218.___. "Who Speaks What Language to Whom and When?" *La Linguistique*, Vol. II (1965), pp. 67-88. 29 references.

Presents the concept of "domains of language choice" in an "attempt to provide socio-cultural organization and socio-cultural context for consideration of variance in language choice in multilingual settings." (p. 86)

219.___. "Yiddish in America: Socio-Linguistic Description and Analysis." *International Journal of American Linguistics*, Vol. XXXI, No. 2, Part 2, April 1965, 94 pp. Bloomington: Indiana University, 1965. Publication of the Indiana University Research Center in Anthropology, Folklore and Linguistics, No. 36. Bibliography pp. 87-94.

Appendix: The Hebrew Language in the United States, pp. 77-85. A systematic study examining all facets of Yiddish language maintenance in the United States.

220.___, et al. *Bilingualism in the Barrio*. 2 vols. Final Report, Contract No. OEC-1-062817-0297. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education; Bureau of Research, 1968. 1,209 pp. References.

Presents a variety of techniques for the measurement and description of bilingualism, derived separately from the disciplines of linguistics, psychology, and sociology.

*221.___, et al. "Bilingualism in the Barrio." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. LIII, No. 3 (March 1969). Special issue on bilingualism, with a preface by Joshua A. Fishman and the following articles:

Fishman, Joshua A. "The Measurement and Description of Widespread and Relatively Stable Bilingualism," pp. 152-156.

Fishman, Joshua A., and Heriberto Casiano. "Puerto Ricans in our Press," pp. 158-162.

Cooper, Robert L.,and Lawrence Greenfield. "Word Frequency Estimation as a Measure of Degree of Bilingualism," pp. 163-166.

Cooper, Robert L., and Lawrence Greenfield. "Language Use in a Bilingual Community," pp. 166-172.

Cooper, Robert L. "Two Contextualized Measures of Degree of Bilingualism," pp. 172-178.

Edleman, Martin. "The Contextualization of Schoolchildren's Bilingualism," pp. 179-182.

Berney, Tomi D., and Robert L. Cooper. "Semantic Independence and Degree of Bilingualism in Two Communities," pp. 182-185.

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Findling, Joav. "Bilingual Need Affiliation and Future Orienttion in Extragroup and Intragroup Domains," pp. 227-231.

Ronch, Judah, Robert L. Cooper, and Joshua A. Fishman. "Word Naming and Usage Scores for a Sample of Yiddish-English Bilinguals," pp. 232-235.

Cooper, Robert L., Barbara L. Fowles, and Abraham Givner. "Listening Comprehension in a Bilingual Community," pp. 235-241.

Silverman, Stuart H. "The Evaluation of Language Varieties," pp 241-244.

Fertig, Shelton, and Joshua A. Fishman. "Some Measures in the Interaction Between Language Domain and Semantic Dimension in Bilinguals," p. 244-249.

Silverman, Stuart H. "A Method for Recording and Analyzing the Prosodic Features of Language," pp. 250-254.

Terry, Charles E., and Robert L. Cooper. "A Note on the Perception and Production of Phonological Variation," pp. 254-255.

Fishman, Joshua A. "Some Things Learned; Some Things Yet to Learn," pp. 255-258.

222.___, and Valdimir C. Nahirny. "The Ethnic Group School and Mother Tongue Maintenance in the United States." *Sociology of Education*, Vol. XXVII, No. 4 (Summer 1964), pp. 306-317.

Sketches some of the general characteristics of the schools sponsored by or on behalf of ethnic groups in the United States: their size, auspices, faculty, student body, curricula, and activities; and presents data pertaining to language maintenance efforts of ethnic group schools.

223.___, et al. "Guidelines for Testing Minority Group Children." *Journal of Social Issues,* Vol. XX, No. 2 (April 1964), pp. 129-145. 24 references.

*224.___, et al. *Language Loyalty in the United States; The Maintenance and Perpetuation of Non-English Mother Tongues by American Ethnic and Religious Groups*. With an introduction by Einar Haugen. The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1966. 478 pp. Bibliographies at the end of each chapter.

A basic document for the "study of the self-maintenance efforts, rationales, and accomplishments of non-English speaking immigrants on American shores." (p. 15.) Includes histories of language maintenance efforts on the part of broadcasting, the press, ethnic parishes and schools, and general community organizational and leadership interest. Focuses on the German, French, Spanish, and Ukrainian groups.

225.___, Charles A. Ferguson, and Jyotirindra Das Gupta, eds. *Language Problems of Developing Nations*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968. 521 pp. Select bibliographies or notes at the end of each chapter.

Provides "examples of the diverse societal and national functions of language varieties,...of the changes in these functions as the roles and statuses of their speakers change, and...of the changes in the language varieties per se that accompany their changed uses and users." (p. x.)

226.___, and Heriberto Casiano. "Puerto Ricans in Our Press." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. LIII, No. 3 (March 1969), pp. 157-162.

"This study reports on the treatment of Puerto Ricans in four New York City dailies, two published in English and two in Spanish." It seeks to answer certain questions dealing with attitude and language maintenance. (p. 157.)

227.___, comp., William W. Brickman, and Stanley Lehrer, eds. "Subsidized Pluralism in American Education." Supplement to *School and Society*, Vol. LXXXVII, No. 2154 (May 23, 1959), pp. 245-268.

A collection of seven papers representing the attempts of a philosopher, an educational administrator, an educator, an intergroup relations specialist, a sociologist, and a social psychologist to clarify the concept of publicly subsidized pluralism and to relate it to the reality of American social structure and American democratic values.

228. Fitch, Michael John. "Verbal and Performance Test Scores in Bilingual Children." Research Study No. 1. Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Colorado State College, 1966. 70 pp. *Dissertation Abstracts*, Series A, Vol. XXVII, No. 6 (December 1966), pp. 1654-1655.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effects of increased exposure to the English language on verbal and non-verbal measures in bilingual children.

229. Foerster, Robert F. *The Italian Emigration of Our Time*. Harvard Economic Studies, Vol. XX. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1919. 556 pp. Bibliographical footnotes.

The standard work on Italian emigration to all countries.

230. Fogel, Walter. *Education and Income of Mexican-Americans of the Southwest*. Mexican-American Study Project, Advance Report No. 1. Los Angeles, California: University of California, 1965. 30 pp.

231. Fogelquist, Donald F. "The Bilingualism of Paraguay." *Hispania*, Vol. XXXII, No. 1 (February 1950), pp. 23-27. Bibliographical notes.

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232. Forbes, Jack D. *Mexican-Americans, A Handbook for Educators*. Berkeley: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1967. 41 pp.

Presents sixteen suggestions for the teacher and administrator of the Mexican American to begin acquiring insights into the background of Mexican culture and thinking.

233. Ford, Richard Clyde. "The French-Canadians in Michigan." *Michigan History Magazine*, Vol. XXVII, No. 2 (Spring 1943), pp. 243-257.

Describes the factors which have led to the disappearance of French in Michigan more than a century ago under press of Anglo-Saxon contact.

234. "The 'Fourth Faith.'" *Newsweek*, Vol. LXIV, No. 2 (July 13, 1964), p. 52.

Brief statement on the importance of Orthodoxy in the United States and the Western Hemisphere.

235. Frender, Robert, Bruce Brown, and Wallace E. Lambert. "The Roles of Speech Characteristics, Verbal Intelligence and Achievement Motivation in Scholastic Success." Unpublished paper. Montreal, Canada: McGill University, November 1968. 20 pp. 12 references.

236. Frey, J. William. "Amish 'Triple Talk'" *American Speech* Vol. XX, No. 2 (April 1945), pp. 85-98.

Technical discussion of the Pennsylvania Dutch-High German-English trilingualism existing among the Amish communities of Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, among others.

237. Friedmann, R. *Hutterite Studies*. Goshen, Indiana: Mennonite Historical Society, 1961.

238. Fucilla, Joseph G. *The Teaching of Italian in the United States: A Documentary History*. New Brunswick, New Jersey: American Association of Teachers of Italian, 1967. 300 pp.

A history of the role of the Italian language in American schools and universities from colonial times to the present. Contains a list of elementary and high schools, colleges and universities where Italian is still taught today, with enrollment figures.

239. Gaarder, A. Bruce, "Beyond Grammar and Beyond Drills." *FL Annals*, Vol. I, No. 2 (December 1967), pp. 109-118.

The teacher should be conscious of the points being displayed, but the learner's focus should concentrate on significant meaning. Sample drills in Spanish.

*240.___."Bilingualism." In Donald D. Walsh, ed., *A Handbook for Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese.* Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, A Division of Raytheon Education Company, 1969, pp. 149-172. Bibliography, pp. 170-172.

This authoritative summary deals with the "relationship between natural and artificial bilingualism, and the extent to which the teacher of foreign language must concern himself with more and more aspects of the total phenomenon of bilingualism...." (p. 149)

*241.___. "The Challenge of Bilingualism." In G. Reginald Bishop, ed., *Foreign Language Teaching: Challenges to the Profession.* Reports of the Working Committees of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1965, pp. 54-101. 9 references.

242.___. "Conserving Our Linguistic Resources." *PMLA*, Vol. LXXX, No. 2B (May 1965), pp. 19-23.

An appeal in favor of bilingual education for bilingual children in an attempt to preserve the ethnic heritage of non-English-mother-tongue children in the U.S.

*243.___. "Organization of the Bilingual School." *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2 (April 1967), pp. 110-120. 13 references.

Directed toward sociologists and school administrators interested in bilingual education. Emphasis on teacher training and full consideration of school organization and classroom practices.

*244.___. "Teaching the Bilingual Child: Research, Development, and Policy." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLIX, No. 3 (March 1965), pp. 165-175.

Use of mother tongue as language of instruction in beginning school recommended.

245.___, and Mabel W. Richardson. "Two Patterns of Bilingual Education in Dade County, Florida." In Thomas E. Bird, ed., *Foreign Language Learning: Research and Development: An Assessment.* Reports of the Working Commitees of the 1968 Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Menasha, Wisconsin: George Banta Co., Inc., 1968, pp. 32-44.

A short description of the Spanish for Spanish-Speakers Program started in Dade County in 1961 and of the Coral Way Bilingual School Program begun in 1963.

246. Gans, Herbert J. *The Urban Villagers: Group and Class in the Life of talian-Americans.* Foreword by Erich Lindemann. New York: Free Press of Glencoe. 196 367 pp. Bibliography, pp. 351-358.

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247. Garvin, Paul L., and Madeleine Mathoit. "The Urbanization of the Guraní Language—A Problem in Language and Culture." In Anthony F. C. Wallace, Ed., *en and Cultures: Selected Papers of the Fifth Congress of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences.* Philadelphia, September 1-9, 1956. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1960, pp. 783-790. 20 bibliographical notes.

248. Gehrke, William H. "The Transition from the German to the English Language in North Carolina." *North Carolina Historical Review*, Vol. XII (1935), pp. 1-19.

249. Gel, Walter Local Emerald. "Education and Income of Mexican-Americans in the Southwest." Mexican-American Study Project Advance Report No. 1. Los Angeles, California: University of California, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, 1965.

250. Georges, Robert A. "The Greeks of Tarpon Springs: An American Folk Group." *Southern Folklore Quarterly*, Vol. XXIX, No. 2 (June 1965), pp. 129-141.

*251. Georgetown University. *Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics*, No. 7 (September 1954). Report of the Fifth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Teaching, edited by Hugo J. Mueller. "Bilingualism and Mixed Languages," pp. 9-56. Contents:
Haugen, Einar. "Problems of Bilingual Description," pp. 9-19.
Leopold, Werner F. "A Child's Learning of Two Languages," pp. 19-30.
Haden, Ernest F. "The Phonemes of Acadian French," pp. 31-40.
Weinreich, Uriel. "Linguistic Convergence in Immigrant America," pp. 40-49; "Discussion," pp. 49-56.

252.——. No. 15 (1962). Report of the Thirteenth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies, edited by Elizabeth D. Woodworth and Robert J. Di Pietro. "Bilingualism," pp. 53-84. Contents:
Diebold, A. Richard, Jr. "Code-Switching in Greek-English Bilingual Speech," pp. 53-62.
Haugen, Einar. "Schizoglossia and the Linguistic Norm," pp. 63-73.
O'Huallacháin, Colmán, O.F.M., "Bilingualism in Education in Ireland, pp. 75-84.
McQuown, Norman A. "Indian and Ladino Bilingualism: Sociocultural Contrasts in Chiapas, Mexico," pp. 85-106.
"National Languages and Diglossia," pp. 109-177. Contents:
Householder, Fred W., Jr. "Greek Diglossia," pp. 109-132.
Moulton, William G. "What Standard for Diglossia? The Case of German Switzerland," pp. 133-148.
Stewart, William A. "The Functional Distribution of Creole and French in Haiti," 149-162.
Ferguson, Charles A. "Problems of Teaching Languages With Diglossia," pp. 165-177.
Each paper is followed by a "discussion."

253. Gerhard, E. S. "The History of Schwenkfelder Schools." *Schwenkfeldiana*, Vol. I, No. 3 (1943), pp. 5-21.

254. Gilbert, Glenn G. "The German Dialect Spoken in Kendall and Gillespie Counties, Texas." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1963.

255.——. *Texas Studies in Bilingualism*. Studia Linguistica, Vol. I. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter and Co., In Press.

256. Giles, W. H. "Mathematics in Bilingualism: A Pragmatic Approach." *ISA Bulletin: The International Schools Association*, No. 55 (February 1969), pp. 19-26.

A discussion of the bilingual teaching of mathematics in the Toronto French School, where, although the students are basically English-mother-tongue, 75-80 percent of all instruction is carried on in French.

257. Giroux, Marc-Yvain, and Dormer Ellis. "Apprenticeship in Bilingualism in Welland's Public Elementary Schools." Translated from an unpublished paper prepared for the Tenth Annual Conference of the Ontario Educational Research Council. Toronto, Canada, December 7, 1968. 8 pp. 8 references.

Results of a project undertaken in bilingual schools in Welland.

258. Gisolfi, Anthony M. "Italo-American: What it Has Borrowed From American English and What it is Contributing to the American Language." *Commonweal*, Vol. XXX, No. 13 (July 21, 1939), pp. 311-313.

Traces the general lines of the evolution of the dialect of Italian immigrants in America.

259. Gittler, Joseph B., ed. *Understanding Minority Groups.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; London: Chapman & Hall, Limited, 1956. 140 pp. Bibliography, pp. 138-139.

Contains valuable articles on the Indians, the Japanese, and the Puerto Ricans in the U. S.

260. Glazer, Nathan, and Daniel Patrick Moynihan. *Beyond the Melting Pot: The Negroes, Puerto-Ricans, Jews, Italians, and Irish of New York City*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M.I.T. Press and Harvard University Press, 1963. 360 pp.

Combines quantitative and impressionistic data to consider the melting of ethnicity today.

261. Gleason, H. A., Jr. "The Grammars of English." See Temple University, The NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth.

262. Gobetz, Giles E. "The Tragic Abandonment of our Ethnic Heritage," *Ohio Schools*, October 1965, pp. 26 ff.

263. Goldhagen, Eric. *Ethnic Minorities in the Soviet Union*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1968. 351 pp. Bibliographies.

Essays read at a symposium held in Fall 1965, at the Institute of East European Jewish Studies of Philip W. Lown School of Near Eastern and Judaic Studies of Brandeis University.

264. González, Nancie L. "The Spanish Americans of New Mexico." Advance Report No. 9, Mexican-American Study Project, Los Angeles, California: University of California, September 1967.

265. Good Samaritan Center, 1600 Saltillo, San Antonio, Texas 78207. "The Crucial Years."

A film strip with synchronized commentary describing bilingual pre-school program for educationally disadvantaged Spanish-speaking children between the ages of three and six.

266. Goodson, W. R., ed. *Addresses and Reports Presented at the Conference on Development of Bilingualism in Children of Varying Linguistic and Cultural Heritages*. See Texas Education Agency.

267. Gordon, Milton Myron. *Assimilation in American Life: The Role of Race, Religion, and National Origins*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1964. 276 pp. Bibliographical footnotes.

268. Gould, Ketayun H. "Social-Role Expectations of Polonians by Social Class, Ethnic Identification, and Generational Positioning." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1966. *Dissertation Abstracts*, Series A, Vol. XXVII, No. 3 (1966), p. 3140.

269. Goulet, Alexandre. *Une Nouvelle-France en Nouvelle-Angleterre*. Preface by Emile Lauvrière. Paris: E. Duchemin, 1934. 158 pp. Bibliography, pp. 153-158.

"A New France in New England." The history of the Franco-Americans.

270. Govorchin, Gerald Gilbert. *Americans from Yugoslavia.* Gainesville, Florida: The University of Florida Press, 1961. 352 pp. Bibliography, pp. 283-297.

A comprehensive study of Yugoslav immigration to America. Detailed statistics are given as appendices.

271. Grebler, Leo. "The Schooling Gap: Signs of Progress." Mexican-American Study Project, Advance Report No. 7. Los Angeles, California: University of California, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, 1967.

272. "Greek Emigration: Keeping the Poor at Home." *Economist* (London), Vol. CCXI (June 13, 1964), p. 1266.

273. Green, Shirley E. *The Education of Migrant Children.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Department of Rural Education, 1954. 179 pp.

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274. Grieve, D. W., and A. Taylor. "Media of Instruction: A Preliminary Study of the Relative Merits of English and an African Vernacular as Teaching Media." *Gold Coast Education*, No. 1 (May 1952), pp. 36-52.

Report of a pilot bilingual program conducted in Ghana, in which Twi, a local vernacular, was used as a medium of instruction to teach general subjects to Senior Primary School students.

275. Gross, Feliks. "Language and Value Changes Among the Arapaho." *International Journal of American Linguistics*, Vol. XVII (1951), pp. 10-17.

Discusses language as an index of culture change, the functional distribution of language, the distribution of the use of Arapaho and English within the family, and the transformation of values as these factors pertain to this Indian group.

276. Grueningen, John Paul von, ed. *The Swiss in the United States: A Compilation Prepared for the Swiss-American Historical Society as the Second Volume of its Publications.* Madison, Wisconsin: Swiss-American Historical Society, 1940. 153 pp.

A general study based on a statistical survey of Swiss immigration to the United States, with special attention given to the Italian-Swiss of California.

277. Gudschinsky, Sarah C. "Recent Trends in Primer Construction." *Fundamental and Adult Education*, Vol. XI, No. 2 (1959), pp. x-xxxix.

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Linguistics. Deals with primer planning, analysis procedures for primer construction; and examples of complete primer series in 19 different languages including several American Indian languages.

278. Gumperz, John. "On the Linguistic Markers of Bilingual Communication." See *The Journal of Social Issues.*

279. Gurren, Louise. "A Special Project for Teaching Speech to Transitional Puerto Rican High School Students in the City of New York." *Speech Teacher*, Vol. VII (1958), pp. 148-150.

280. Gzowski, Peter. "The B. and B.'s Desperate Catalogue of the Obvious: "What We Got For Our One and a Half Million Dollars." *Saturday Night*, Vol. XXC (April 1965), pp. 17-19.

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281. Hagwood, J. A. *The Tragedy of German Americans in the Unites States.* New York and London: Putnam, 1940.

282. Hakes, David T. "Psychological Aspects of Bilingualism." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLIX, No. 4 (April 1965), pp. 220-227.

283. Halich, Wasyl. *Ukrainians in the United States.* Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1937. 174 pp. Bibliography, pp. 163-168.

The history of Ukrainian immigration to the United States and their life in their new homeland: organizations, churches, press, social activities, civic enterprises, etc., with detailed tables and maps showing their distribution in the country.

284. Hall, Robert A., Jr. *Linguistics and Your Language.* Anchor Books, No. A201. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1960. 265 pp. Bibliography, pp. 260-263. Second revised edition of *Leave Your Language Alone!*, Ithaca, New York: Linguistica, 1950.

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Outlines one aspect of the Franco-Americans' struggle "to preserve some semblance of racial integrity": the Franco-American fraternal societies.

287. ———. "French Patterns in Quebec and New England." *New England Quarterly*, Vol. XVIII, No. 4 (December 1945), pp. 435-447.

288. ———. "Journalism and the French Survival in New England." *New England Quarterly*, Vol. XI (March-December 1938), pp. 89-107.

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290. Handlin, Oscar. *The American People in the Twentieth Century*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1954. 244 pp.
A historical account since 1900, with a separate discussion of each ethnic group.

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292.___, ed. *Immigration as a Factor in American History*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 206 pp.

293.___. *The Uprooted: The Epic Story of the Great Migrations that Made the American People*. Boston, Massachusetts: Little, Brown, 1951. 310 pp.

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Presents a survey of the programs for the education of migrant children in California, Colorado, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, and Pennsylvania.

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297. Hansen, Marcus Lee, and John Bartlet Brebner. *The Mingling of the Canadian and American Peoples*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1940. 274 pp. Bibliographical footnotes.

298. Harrigan, Joan, comp. "Materiales tocante los latinos: A Bibliography of Materials on the Spanish-Americans." Denver, Colorado: Colorado Department of Education, Division of Library Services, October 1967. 36 pp.

299. Harris, Dixie Lee. "Education of Linguistic Minorities in the United States and the U.S.S.R." *Comparative Education Review*, Vol. VI, No. 3 (February 1963), pp. 191-199.
Compares general and educational treatment by the U.S.S.R. of its linguistic minorities, and the United States native Indian and Eskimo tribes. Provides a thorough comparison of two schools, one in each country.

300. Harrison, Selig S. *The Most Dangerous Decades: An Introduction to the Comparative Study of Language Policy in Multi-lingual States*. New York: Language and Communication Research Center, Columbia University, 1957. Mimeographed. 102 pp. Bibliographies, pp. 35-69, 75-102.
The study is concerned with the influence of multilingualism on national unity. The comprehensive classified bibliography focuses on the Soviet Union, Switzerland, the Philippines, and Sub-Saharan Africa.

301. Haugen, Einar. "Bilingualism: Definition and Problems." Unpublished paper. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University, February 1968. 16 pp. 34 references.

*302.____. *Bilingualism in the Americas: A Bibliography and Research Guide*. Second printing. University, Alabama: The University of Alabama Press, 1964. First printing: Gainesville, Florida: The American Dialect Society, November 1956. Publication No. 26. 160 pp.

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303.____. "Language and Immigration." *Norwegian-American Studies and Records*, Vol. X (1938), pp. 1-43.

304.____. *Language Conflict and Language Planning: The Case of Modern Norwegian*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1966. 393 pp. Bibliography (1. General and 2. Norwegain), pp. 325-353.

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305.____. *The Norwegian Language in America: A Study in Bilingual Behavior*. 2 vols. Publications of the American Institute, University of Oslo, in cooperation with the Department of American Civilization, Graduate School of Arts and Sciences, University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The University of Pennsylvania Press, 1953. 695 pp. Bibliographical footnotes.

Vol. I: *The Bilingual Community,* with footnote references, pp.295-317.

Contains a history of immigration, demographic data, organizations, schools, role of the Lutheran Church, language mixing, controversy over the orthography of Norwegian, etc.

Vol. II: *The American Dialects of Norwegian,* with footnote references, pp. 645-664.

Contains linguistic data on the American dialects of Norwegian.

306.____. *The Norwegians in America: A Student's Guide to Localized History*. Localized History Series, Clifford L. Lord, editor. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1967. 40 pp.

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A concise statement on the problems of description and on its place in aiding linguistic research.

Example: comparison of Norwegian and English.

308.____. "Problems of Bilingualism." *Lingua (International Review of General Linguistics)*, Vol. II, No. 3 (Ausust 1950), pp. 271-290.

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Suggestions on how to conduct research in bilingualism.

310.___. "The Struggle Over Norwegian." *Norwegian-American Studies and Records.* Vol. XVII (1952), pp. 1-35.

311. Hawaii. Department of Education. Office of Research. "Survey of Non-English Speaking Students Attending the Public Schools in Hawaii." Research Report No. 58. Honolulu, Hawaii: Department of Education, May 23, 1968.

312. Heller, Celia S. *Mexican-American Youth: Forgotten Youth at the Crossroads*. Studies in Sociology, No. 20. Fourth printing. New York: Random House, December 1968. 116 pp. 14 references.

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Paints a depressing picture of the B.I.A. schools today including the more negative data regarding educational failure and environmental rigidity.

314. Hense-Jensen, W., and E. Bruncken. *Wisconsin Deutsch-Amerikaner*. 2 vols. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Deutsche Gesellschaft, 1902.

315. Herskovits, Melville J. "Some Comments on the Study of Culture Contact." *American Anthropologist*, new series, Vol. XLIII, No. 1 (January-March 1941), pp. 1-10.

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Presents cardinal rules for teachers of a second language to take into account as they fulfill their function as "cultural change agents" in order that the student become truly bicultural.

317. Hill, Archibald A. "The Typology of Writing Systems." In William M. Austin, ed., *Papers in Linguistics in Honor of Léon Dostert*. The Hague, Paris: Mouton, 1967, pp. 92-99.

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Presents the rationale and some possible means of implementing a program where the vernacular is used as a bridge to reading in a second language.

319. Hill, Henry Segner. "The Effects of Bilingualism on the Measured Intelligence of Elementary School Children of Italian Parentage." *The Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. V. No. 1 (September 1936), pp. 75-78. Doctors's Thesis; Rutgers University, 1935.

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320. Hilliard, Asa G. "Cross-Cultural Teaching." *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. XVIII (Spring 1967), pp. 32-35.

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322. Hodnefield, Jacob. "Norwegian-American *Bygdelags* and Their Publications." *Norwegian-American Studies and Records*, Vol. XVII (1954), pp. 163-232. 33-item bibliography (all but one item in Norwegian).

323. Hoffman, Moses N. H. *The Measurement of Bilingual Background*. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1934. Contributions of Education, No. 623. 76 pp. 51-item bibliography. Ph.D. Thesis, Columbia University, 1934.

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325. Hofman, John E. "The Language Transition in Some Lutheran Denominations." In Joshua A. Fishman, et al., *Language Loyalty in the United States*, Chapter 10. Final report to the U.S. Office of Education, Language Research Section, under contract SAE-8729, c. 1964.

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327. Holland, William R. "Language Barrier as an Educational Problem of Spanish-Speaking Children." *Exceptional Children*, Vol. XXVII, No. 1 (September 1960), pp. 42-44.

328. Holmes, Graham, William J. Benham, and Walter M. Stepp. "Rationale of Navajo Area's English-as-a-Second-Language Program." June 1966. Mimeographed, 16 pp. With appendices.

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330. Holtzman, Wayne H. "Cross-Cultural Studies in Psychology." *International Journal of Psychology*, Vol. III (1968), pp. 83-91.

331. ———, R. Díaz-Guerrero, J. D. Swartz, and L. Lara Tapia. "Cross-Cultural Longitudinal Research on Child Development: Studies of American and Mexican School Children." In

J. P. Hill, ed., *Minnesota Symposia on Child Psychology*, Vol. II Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1968.

332. Hopkins, Thomas R. *Bureau of Indian Affairs Summer Program*. University of Alaska, June 24 to August 2, 1963. Juneau, Alaska: Bureau of Indian Affairs, September 1963. 58 pp.

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333.___. "Educational Provisions for the Alaskan Native Since 1867." M.Ed. Thesis, The University of Texas, 1959. 117 pp. Includes bibliographies.

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334.___. *Language Testing of North American Indians*. Washington, D. C.: Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1967.

335. Horn, Thomas D. *A Study of the Effects of Intensive Oral-Aural English Language Instruction, Oral-Aural Spanish Language Instruction and Non-Oral-Aural Instruction on Reading Readiness in Grade One*. Cooperative Research Project No. 2648. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, 1966. 58 pp. plus appendices. Bibliography.

 The effectiveness of three methods were compared for developing reading readiness in Spanish-speaking first grade children.

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337. Hutchinson, Edward P., ed. "The New Immigration." *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*, Vol. CCCLXVII (September 1966). Special issue.

 Up-to-date review of quota, non-quota, and refugee immigration to the United States to 1966.

338. Hymes, Dell. *Language in Culture and Society: A Reader in Linguistics and Anthropology*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1964. 764 pp. Bibliography, pp. 711-749.

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339.___. "Models On Interaction of Language and Social Setting." See *The Journal of Social Issues.*

*340.*___, and William E. Bittle, eds. *Studies in Southwestern Ethnolinguistics: Meaning and History in Language of the American Southwest*. Studies in General Anthropology, No. 3. The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1967. 467 pp. Bibliographies.

341. Ianni, Francis A. J. "Residential and Occupational Mobility as Indices of Acculturation of an Ethnic Group." *Social Forces*, Vol. XXXVI, No. 1 (October 1957), pp. 65-72.

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345. Jacoby, Neil H. *The Progress of Peoples: Toward a Theory and Policy of Development With External Aid.* With a Center Discussion. "A Center Occasional Paper," Vol. II, No. 4 (June 1969). For the Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions. Santa Barbara, California: Fund for the Republic, Inc., 1969. 36 pp.

346. James, C. B. E. "Bilingualism in Wales: An Aspect of Semantic Organization." *Educational Research*, Vol. II (1960), pp. 123-136.

347. Jameson, Gloria R. *The Development of a Phonemic Analysis for an Oral English Proficiency Test for Spanish-Speaking School Beginners*. Ph.D. dissertation. Oral English Language Proficiency Test I, The San Antonio, Texas, Language Research Project, Thomas D. Horn, Director. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, January 1967. 189 pp. Bibliography, pp. 185-187.

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Suggests a positive correlation between socioeconomic status and scholastic aptitude, and more significantly, that these socioeconomic differences in intelligence are due largely to genetic factors.

*350. Jensen, J. Vernon. "Effects of Childhood Bilingualism." *Elementary English,*

I: Vol. XXXIX, No. 2 (February 1962), pp. 132-143; 200-item bibliography on bilingualism.

II: Vol. XXXIX, No. 4 (April 1962), pp. 358-366.

A study of childhood bilingualism. Compares and illustrates the good and the ill effects of bilingualism on the individual from various points of view.

351. Jespersen, Otto. *Language, Its Nature, Development, and Origin*. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd.; New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1922. 448 pp.

A theory of linguistic development beginning with a history of linguistic science, then dealing with the child, the individual in the world, and the development of language.

352. *Jewish Education*. A quarterly published since 1930, by the National Council for Jewish Education with the assistance of the American Association for Jewish Education.

353. John, Vera P. "Language and Education: The Challenge of Pluralism." Paper delivered at American Anthropological Association Conference in Miami, May 1968.

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354. Johnson, B. H. *Navajo Education at Rough Rock*. Rough Rock, Arizona: Diné, Inc., 1968. 212 pp.

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An analysis of the attitudes of Canadian adults toward immigrants, which reveals that variations in attitudes to immigrants are significantly related to certain dimensions of the interaction systems in which immigrants and natives participate.

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361.——. *Bilingualism in Welsh Education.* Cardiff, Wales: University of Wales Press, 1966.

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Reveals that the Germans and Danes are foremost in the acquisition of the English language and that the disposition on the part of the parents to use the native language among themselves is less marked among Danish, German, and Jewish families than among the Slavs, Spaniards, Greeks, and Hungarians.

369. *The Journal of Education*, No. 9 (January 1964). Special issue: Biculturalism and Education. 112 pp.

A collection of 15 articles on French-English bilingualism in Canada and its educational implications.

*370. *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2 (April 1967), 138 pp. Special issue: "Problems of Bilingualism," edited by John Macnamara. Contents:

Hymes, Dell. "Models on Interaction of Language and Social Setting," pp. 8-28.

Fishman, Joshua A. "Bilingualism With and Without Diglossia; Diglossia With and Without Bilingualism," pp. 29-38.

Kloss, Heinz. "Bilingualism and Nationalism," pp. 39-47.

Gumperz, John. "On the Linguistic Markers of Bilingual Communication," pp. 48-57.

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Macnamara, John. "Effects of Instruction in a Weaker Language," pp. 120-134.

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374. Kelley, Louis. See Canadian Commission for UNESCO.

375. Kennedy, John Fitzgerald. *A Nation of Immigrants*. Introduction by Robert F. Kennedy. Revised and enlarged edition. New York: Harper & Row, 1964. 111 pp. Bibliography, pp. 95-101.

376. Kennedy, Stetson. *Jim Crow Guide to the U.S.A.: The Laws, Customs and Etiquette Governing the Conduct of Nonwhites and Other Minorities as Second-Class Citizens*. London: Lawrence & Wishart Ltd., 1959. 230 pp.

377. Keston, Morton J., and Carmina Jiménez. "A Study of the Performance on English and Spanish Editions of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test by Spanish-American Children." *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, Vol. LXXXV, Second Half (December 1954), pp. 263-269. 15 references.

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378. King, Paul E. *Bilingual Readiness in Primary Grades: An Early Childhood Demonstration Project*. Project No. D-107, Contract No. OE-4-10-101. New York: Hunter College of the City University of New York, December 1966.

379. Kittell, Jack E. "Bilingualism and Language–Non-Language Intelligence Scores of Third-Grade Children." *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. LII, No. 7 (March 1959), pp. 263-268. 13 references.

380.____. "Intelligence-Test Performance of Children from Bilingual Environments." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. LXIV, No. 2 (November 1963), pp. 76-83. 6 references.

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382.____. "Bilingualism and Nationalism." *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2 (April 1967), pp. 39-47.

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384.____. *Das Volksgruppenrecht in den Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika*. Essen, Germany: Essener Verlagsanstalt, 1940 (Part I) and 1942 (Part II).

385.____. "Deutscher Sprachunterricht im Grundschulalter in den Vereinigten Staaten." *Auslandskurier*, Vol. VIII (August 1967), pp. 22-24.

386.____. "Die deutschamerikanische Schule." *Jahrbuch für Amerikastudien* (Heidelberg), Vol. II (1962), pp. 141-175.

387.____. "Experts from the National Minority Laws of the United States of America." Translated from the German by Ulrich Hans R. Mammitzsch. Occasional papers of Research Translations, Institute of Advanced Projects, East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii. Mimeographed, 72 pp. 123 bibliographical notes.

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389.____. "Types of Multilingual Communities: A Discussion of Ten Variables." *Sociological Inquiry*, Vol. XXXVI, No. 2 (Spring 1966), pp. 135-145.

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390.____. "Uber die mittelbare Kartographische Erfassung der jüngeren deutschen Volksinseln in den Vereinigten Staaten." *Deutsches Archiv für Landes und Volksforschung*, Vol. III (1939), pp. 453-474.

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392. Kolers, Paul A. "Bilingualism and Bicodalism." *Language and Speech*, Vol. VIII (1965), pp. 122-126.

393.____. "Reading and Talking Bilingually." *American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. LXXIX, No. 3 (September 1966), pp. 357-376.

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394. Kollmorgen, Walter M., and Robert W. Harrison. "French-Speaking Farmers of Southern Louisiana." *Economic Geography*, Vol. XXII, No. 3 (July 1946), pp. 153-160.

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395. Konvitz, Milton R. *The Alien and the Asiatic in American Law*. Cornell Studies in Civil Liberty. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1946. 299 pp.

396. Kosinski, Leonard Vincent. "Bilingualism and Reading Development: A Study of the Effects of Polish-American Bilingualism Upon Reading Achievement in Junior High School." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1963. (*Dissertation Abstracts* Vol. XXIV, No. 2 (1963), pp. 2462-2463.)

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397. Kreidler, Carol J., ed. *On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages:* Series II, Papers read at the TESOL Conference, San Diego, California, March 12-13, 1965. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

A set of articles on TESOL as a professional field, reports on special programs, some key concepts and current concerns, and the preparation and use of materials and aids.

398. Kreusler, Abraham. "Bilingualism in Soviet Non-Russian Schools." *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. LXII, No. 2 (November 1961), pp. 94-99. 8 references.

A description of the new school programs in the Soviet Union tending to extend the Russian language throughout the country and at the same time preserve the cultural heritage of its minority groups, thus producing bilinguals.

399.____. *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the Soviet Union*. Leiden, The Netherlands: E. J. Brill, 1963. 129 pp.

A report covering the period from 1917 to date. Includes chapters on teacher-training schools, the school reform of 1958, bilingualism in Soviet non-Russian schools, and the Decree of the Council of Ministers in 1961.

400. Kreighbaum, Hillier, and Hugh Rawson. *To Improve Secondary School Science and Mathematics Teaching (A Short History of the First Dozen Years of the National Science Foundation's Summer Institutes Program, 1954-1965)*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1968. 41 pp.

401. Labov, William. "The Non-Standard Vernacular of the Negro Community: Some Practical Suggestions." See Temple University, The NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth.

402. Lado, Robert. *Annotated Bibliography for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language.* United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Bulletin 1955, No. 3. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1955. 224 pp. 730 items.

Covers the period from 1946 to 1953 and lists materials for the teacher and the student, broken down according to the native language background of the student.

403.____. *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers.* With a foreword by Charles C. Fries. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1957. 141 pp. Bibliography, pp. 124-141.

Written in non-technical language, this book demonstrates the role that descriptive linguistics can play in practical language teaching including comparison of sound systems, grammatical structures, vocabulary systems, and values of contrastive studies.

404.____, Wallace Lambert, and Theodore Andersson. "Relación entre el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera y el vernáculo." *Educación,* Vol. XI, No. 3 (1962), pp. 11-41.

Three papers presented in Spanish at the *Conferencia sobre la enseñanza de lengua* held at San Juan, Puerto Rico, discussing the relation between the native tongue and the acquisition of a second language.

405. La Fontaine, Hernán, and Muriel Pagan. "A Model for the Implementation of the Elementary School Curriculum through Bilingual Education." Produced by Hernán La Fontaine, 1969. 10 pp. Mimeographed.

A theoretical model presented to the staff of the Bilingual School (P.S. 25, Bronx, New York) for discussion, modification and implementation beginning September 1968.

406. Laird, Charlton. *The Miracle of Language.* Cleveland, Ohio, and New York: World Publishing Company, 1953. 308 pp. Bibliographical notes, 293-295.

An original attempt to present the miraculous aspect of language.

407. Lambert, Wallace E. "Behavioral Evidence for Contrasting Norms of Bilingualism." In Michael Zarechnak, ed., "Report of the Twelfth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies," Georgetown University *Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics,* No. 14 (1961), pp. 73-80. 11 references.

Psychological approach to bilingualism, to complement the traditional linguistic approach.

408.____. "Developmental Aspects of Second-Language Acquisition." *Journal of Social Psychology,* Vol. XLIII, First Half (February 1956), pp. 83-104. 13 references.

Discusses some of the variables in the linguistic behavior of those who are at different levels of development in the French language.

409.____. "Measurement of the Linguistic Dominance of Bilinguals." *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology,* Vol. L, No. 2 (March 1955), pp. 197-200. 14 references.

A reaction-time method for measuring the extent of bilingualism using three groups of French-English bilinguals.

410.___. "Psychological Approaches to the Study of Language." Part I: "On Learning, Thinking, and Human Abilities." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLVII, No. 2 (February 1963), pp. 50-62; Part II: "On Second-Language Learning and Bilingualism." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLVII, No. 3 (March 1963), pp. 114-121.

Part I: Contains a brief sketch of two contrasting learning theories, one dealing with meaning, the other with verbal behavior.

Part II: The first section deals with a social psychology of second-language learning. The second part traces some of the most definitive research work done in the field of the psychology of bilingualism.

411.___. "Social-Psychological Approaches to the Cross-National Study of Values." Unpublished paper. Montreal, Canada: McGill University, March 1969. 41 pp. 33 references.

Demonstrates how the social psychologist approaches and contributes to the cross-cultural study of human values and personality styles.

412.___. "A Social Psychology of Bilingualism." *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2 (April 1967), pp. 91-109.

Descirbes distinctive behavior of the bilingual individual, the social influences that affect his behavior, and its consequences.

413.___. "A Social Psychology of Bilingualism." Paper presented at the Ninth International African Seminar of University College in Dar-es-Salaam (Tanzania). International African Institute, December 1968.

A revised and shortened version of an earlier paper with the same title (see the foregoing item).

414.___, and Peal; see Peal and Lambert.

415.___, Maria Ignatow, and Marcel Krauthamer. "Bilingual Organization in Free Recall." *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, Vol. VII (1968), pp. 207-214. 20 references.

Two groups of bilinguals, one French-English and the other English-Russian were tested individually. Various results suggest that organization according to semantic categories is a more useful schema than is language for bilinguals.

416.___, and Chris Rawlings. "Bilingual Processing of Mixed-Language Associative Networks." Unpublished paper. Montreal, Canada: McGill University, 1969. 14 pp. 14 references.

Compound and coordinate bilinguals, equally skilled in French and English, were compared for their ability to search out "core concepts" when given mixed-language clues.

417.___, and Otto Klineberg. "The Development of Children's Views of Foreign Peoples." *Childhood Education* (January 1969), pp. 247-253.

A ten-year study to determine how adults effect children's prejudices.

418.———, J. Havelka, and C. Crosby. "The Influence of Language Acquisition Contexts on Bilingualism." *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. LVI, No. 2 (March 1958), pp. 239-244. 9 references.

It was found that if the bilingual has learned his two languages in culturally distinctive contexts, "the semantic differences between translated equivalents are comparatively increased."

419.———, Hannah Frankel, and G. R. Tucker. "Judging Personality Through Speech: A French Canadian Example." *The Journal of Communication*, Vol. XVI (December 1966), pp. 305-321.

420.———, J. Havelka, and R. C. Gardner. "Linguistic Manifestations of Bilingualism." *American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. LXXII, No. 1 (March 1959), pp. 77-82.

A study to develop a series of behavioral measures of bilingualism. Helpful research in determining which is the dominant language in the individual.

*421.———, and J. Macnamara. "Some Cognitive Consequences of Following a First-Grade Curriculum in a Second Language." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, (1969). In press.

Examines "the effects of a year's schooling conducted exclusively in a foreign language on the linguistic and mental development of first-grade children, giving equal attention to possible retardation in native language skills, to progress made in the foreign-language skills, and to relative achievement made with the content of the actual program of study."

*422.———, M. Just, and N. Segalowitz. "Some Cognitive Consequences of Following the Curricula of Grades One and Two in a Foreign Language." Mimeographed. McGill University, 1969. 82 pp. Bibliography, pp. 81-82.

The second report of the Lambert and Macnamara study of a similar title. Follows essentially the same plan.

423. Lancey, Livingstone de. "The French Influence in New Orleans." *The French Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 6 (March 1940), pp. 483-487.

Retraces the history, from colonial times to the present, of the "only remaining city in...the United States whose French origins are still apparent."

424. Landes, Ruth. *Culture in American Education: Anthropological Approaches to Minority and Dominant Groups in the Schools*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1965. 330 pp. Bibliography, pp. 317-324.

A highly stimulating description of an experiment held in Claremont, California, conceived to train public-school educators to understand the social complexities of culture clash in the schools.

425. Landry, Stuart O., ed. *Louisiana Almanac and Fact Book*, New Orleans, Louisiana: Louisiana Almanac and Fact Book.

Contains occasional notes on the French-speaking population of the state.

426. Lang, Gerhard. "Jewish Education." *American Jewish Yearbook*, Vol. LXIX (1968), pp. 370-383.

Latest statistical data on enrollment in American Jewish Schools. Eight tables provided.

427. "Language Usage in Italian Families." *Atlantica,* November 1934.

428. Lauvrière, Emile. *La tragédie d'un peuple: histoire du peuple acadien de ses origines à nos jours.* 2 vols. New edition, revised and completed. Paris: H. Goulet, 1924. 518 + 597 pp. References at end of each chapter.

History of the expulsion of the Acadians from Nova Scotia in 1755.

429. La Violette, Forrest E. *Americans of Japanese Ancestry: A Study of Assimilation in the American Community.* Toronto, Canada: The Canadian Institute of International Affairs, 1945. 185 pp.

430. Lee, Rose Hum. "The Stranded Chinese in the U.S." *Phylon,* Vol. XIX, No. 2 (Summer 1958), pp. 180-194.

431. Lefevre, Carl A. "Values in the Teaching of English and the Language Arts." See Temple University, The NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth.

432. Lehrer, L. "Yiddish in the Yiddish School." *Yiddisher Kemfer,* Vol. XLII (1962), pp. 3-5. (In Yiddish.)

433. Leighton, Alexander H. *The Governing of Men: General Principles and Recommendations Based on Experience at a Japanese Relocation Camp.* Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1946.

434. Leighton, Roby E. *Bicultural Linguistic Concepts in Education.* Tucson: University of Arizona, 1964.

A handbook of suggestions for the administrator, instructor, and guidance counselor interested in the problems of the culturally different student.

435. Lemaire, Hervé B. "Franco-American Efforts on Behalf of the French Language in New England." In Joshua A. Fishman, et al., *Language Loyalty in the United States: The Maintenance and Perpetuation of Non-English Mother-Tongues by American Ethnic and Religious Groups,* The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1966, Chapter 10, pp. 253-279. 24-item bibliography. Revised version of an unpublished study for the Language Resources Project, United States Office of Education, 1964.

An up-to-date description of the status of French in New England, with a full analysis of the elements that have contributed to their cultural survival.

436. Lemoine, Adelard. *L'évolution de la race française en Amérique.* Montreal, Canada: Librairie Beauchemin, Ltd., 1921.

The evolution of the French "race" in America.

437. Lenneberg, Eric H. *Biological Foundations of Language.* With appendices by Noam Chomsky and Otto Marx. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., August 1967. 489 pp.

Perhaps the most comprehensive study to date on the biological bases of speech and language in the light of evolution and genetics and in the context of growth and maturation including a complete biological theory of language development.

438. Leopold, Werner F. *Bibliography of Child Language.* Northwestern University Studies, Humanities Series, No. 28. Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University Press, 1952. 115 pp.

*439.———. *Speech Development of a Bilingual Child: A Linguist's Records.* 4 vols. Northwestern University Studies, Humanities Series, Nos. 6, 11, 18, and 19. Evanston and Chicago, Illinois: Northwestern University Press, 1939-1949.

An observation and recording of the development of speech in a child to whom German and English were spoken with equal frequency from age two. The first three volumes contain reports of vocabulary growth, sound learning, grammar, and general problems in the first two years, and Vol. 4 contains the author's diary of the study.

440.———. "The Study of Child Language and Infant Bilingualism." *Word*, Vol. IV, No. 1 (April 1948), pp. 1-17. 98 bibliographical footnotes.

441. Le Page, Robert B. *The National Language Question: Linguistic Problems of Newly Independent States.* Issued under the auspices of the Institute of Race Relations, London. London, New York: Oxford University Press, 1964. 82 pp. 9 references.

Writing on the assumption that "no universal solution of the national language question exists," the author discusses the variables involved and then develops the possibilities and consequences of these factors.

442. Lerea, Louis, and Suzanne Kohut. "A Comparative Study of Monolinguals and Bilinguals in a Verbal Task Performance." *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, Vol. XVII, No. 1 (January 1961), pp. 49-52.

In a study involving two experiment groups, 30 bilinguals and 30 monolinguals, matched in age, sex, intelligence, and socioeconomic status, they found bilinguals superior in the micro-utterance association (relearning) task and concluded that "bilinguals may possess a unique potential unacknowledged in past research."

443. Lesser, George S., Gordon Fifer, and Donald H. Clark. *Mental Abilities of Children from Different Social-Class and Cultural Groups.* Monograph of the Society for Research in Child Development, Serial No. 102, Vol. XXX, No. 4. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965.

444. Levi-Everest, K. A. "Geographical Origin of German Immigration to Wisconsin." *Collections of the Wisconsin State Historical Society*, Vol. XIV (1898), pp. 341-398.

Describes the dialect variation of the post-colonial language islands.

445. Levinson, B. M. "A Comparison of the Performance of Bilingual and Monolingual Native-Born Jewish Preschool Children of Traditional Parentage on Four Intelligence Tests." *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, Vol. XV, (1959), pp. 74-76.

446. Lewis, D. G. "Bilingualism and Non-Verbal Intelligence: A Further Study of Test Results." *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. XXIX (1959), pp. 17-22.

447. Lewis, E. Glyn. *Foreign and Second Language Teaching in the USSR.* ETIC Occasional Papers, No. 1. London: British Council English-Teaching Information Center, 1962. 16 pp.

Report of foreign-language teaching and bilingualism in the Soviet educational system. Includes comments on type of schools, language policy, and attitudes toward foreign language teaching; teacher training; methodology; audio-visual aids; and bilingual education in the USSR.

448. Lewis, Hilda P., and Edward R. Lewis. "Written Language Performance of Sixth-Grade Children of Low Socioeconomic Status from Bilingual and Monolingual Backgrounds." *The Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. XXXIII, No. 3 (Spring 1965), pp. 237-242.

The study shows that bilingualism did not appear to have an adverse affect upon written language performance.

449. Lewis, Oscar. *A Puerto-Rican Family in the Culture of Poverty: San Juan and New York*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1966. 669 pp.

450. Lieberson, Stanley. "Bilingualism in Montreal: A Demographic Analysis." *The American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. LXXI, No. 1 (July 1965), pp. 10-25.

Census data and linguistic indices are used to examine trends in the ability of Montreal's population to communicate with one another between 1921 and 1961.

451.____. *Ethnic Patterns in American Cities*. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1963. 230 pp. 54 references.

452.____. "National and Regional Language Diversity," *Acts of the 10th International Congress of Linguistics*, Academy of the S.R. of Roumania, 1968. 8 pp.

Presents several theoretical propositions about the relationship between linguistic diversity within a nation and within its subparts or regions.

453. Liu, Kwang-Ching. *Americans and Chinese: A Historical Essay and a Bibliography*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1963. 211 pp.

454. Livingood, F. G. "Eighteenth Century Reformed Church Schools." *Proceedings of the Pennsylvania German Society*, Vol. XXXVIII (1930), p. 199.

455. Locke, William N. "The French Colony at Brunswick, Maine–A Historical Sketch." *Les Archives de Folklore*, Vol. I, pp. 97-111. Montreal: Editions Fides, 1946.

456.____. "Notes on the Vocabulary of the French-Canadian Dialect Spoken in Brunswick, Maine." *The French Review*, Vol. XIX, No. 6 (May 1946), pp. 420-422.

457.____. *Pronunciation of the French Spoken at Brunswick, Maine*. With a preface by J. M. Carrière. Greensboro: University of North Carolina, American Dialect Society, November 1949. Publication of the American Dialect Society, No. 12. 202 pp. 38-item bibliography, pp. 21-22.

An important contribution to the study of Franco-American speech.

458. Logan, J. L. "Coral Way: A Bilingual School." *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. I, No. 2 (June 1967).

A description of the curriculum, background, and reasons for success for this model bilingual program.

459. Louisiana Legislative Council. *Louisiana: Its History, People, Government and Economy*. Second edition. Research Study No. 7. Baton Rouge, Louisiana, November 1955. 285 pp.

460. Louisiana State Department of Education. *Project for French-Speaking Elementary Teachers*. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State Department of Education, 1967.

461. Love, Harold D. "Bilingualism in South West Louisiana." *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. LVI, No. 3 (November 1962), pp. 144-147.

Concludes that French-speaking children in Southwest Louisiana can discriminate between the *th* sound, which they have difficulty in uttering, and the *t* sound only if the examiner has an English language background exclusively.

462. Lowie, Robert H. "A Case of Bilingualism." *Word*, Vol. I, No. 3 (December 1945), pp. 249-259.

Autobiography of a German-English bilingual immigrant from Austria.

463. Lucas, Henry S. *Netherlanders in America: Dutch Immigration to the United States and Canada, 1789-1950*. University of Michigan Publications, History and Political Science, Vol. XXI. Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press; London: Geoffrey Cumberlege, Oxford University Press, 1955. 744 pp. Bibliographical notes, pp. 651-720.

The study of Dutch-Americans, from the time of the early settelements of Michigan and Iowa to date. See especially pp. 579-635 ("Education and Character") and 641-647 (demographic data). The lengthy footnotes provide a rather exhaustive bibliography on the subject.

464. Lyra, Franciszek. "English and Polish in Contact." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1962. (*Dissertation Abstracts*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2 (1962), p. 2128.)

465.____. "Integration of English Loans in U. S. Polish." *Slavic and East European Journal*, Vol. X, No. 3 (Fall 1966), pp. 303-312.

466. Macdonald, John S., and Leatrice D. Macdonald. "Urbanization, Ethnic Groups and Social Segmentation." *Social Research*, Vol. XXIX (Winter 1962), pp. 433-448.

The authors study the processes by which prospective Southern Italian immigrants to the United States learned of opportunities, were provided with passage money, and had initial accommodation and employment arranged through previous immigrants.

467. Mackey, William F. "Bilingual Interference: Its Analysis and Measurement." *Journal of Communication*, Vol. XV, No. 4 (December 1965), pp. 239-249.

A thoughtfully written study which includes a helpful section on types of language behavior. Describes not only the meaning of interference and language borrowing but also a method for analyzing and measuring bilingual interference.

468.____ "Bilingualism." *Encyclopedia Britonnica*, Vol. III (1965), pp. 610-611.

A description of bilingualism and its effects on the individual, the community, and language.

469.____ "Bilingualism and Education." *Revue Trimestrielle Pédagogie-Orientation*, Vol. VI (1952), pp 135-147. 22 bibliographical footnotes.

The article questions some definitions of bilingualism and discusses in detail the degrees of bilinguality, the bilingual school, and the bilingual child.

470.____ "Bilingualism and Linguistic Structure." *Culture*, Vol. XIV (1953), pp. 143-149.
The study describes the basic changes in linguistic structure due to bilingualism.

*471.____. *Bilingualism as a World Problem*. (E. R. Adair Memorial Lectures.) Montreal, Canada: Harvest House, 1967. Bibliography and works by author. Bilingual French-English edition. 62 + 58 pp.
Seeks the causes and consequences of bilingualism.

472.____. "The Description and Measurement of Bilingualism/Description et Mesure du Bilinguisme." *The Linguistic Reporter*, Vol. IX, No. 5 (October 1967), pp. 1-2.
Briefly sets forth the problems yet to be solved and research yet to be done in this area.

473.____. "The Description of Bilingualism." *Candian Journal of Linguistics*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (1962), pp. 51-85.
The author extends further the definition of bilingualism and, encouraged by his colleagues at the 1960 International Seminar on Bilingualism in Education, held in Aberystwyth, he provides a framework for describing bilingualism.

474.____. "The Description of Bilingualism." In Joshua A. Fishman, ed., *Readings in the Sociology of Languages*, The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1968, pp. 554-584.

475.____. "Les exigences du bilinguisme pour l'immigrant." *Citoyen*, Vol. IV (September 1959), pp. 21-29.
Analyzes in simple language the difficulties of second-language learning, especially by an adult.

476.____. *Language Teaching Analysis*. Indiana University Studies in the History and Theory of Linguistics. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1967. 562 pp. 1,741-item topical bibliography, pp. 465-550.
A comprehensive general work on foreign language pedagogy.

477.____. "The Lesson to Be Drawn from Bilingualism." *Applied Linguistics and the Teaching of French*. Montreal, Canada: Centre Educatif et Culturel, 1967.
"On the one hand, we have students being taught without learning; and on the other, we have people who are learning without being taught." The author analyzes five ways in which the two groups differ with respect to language learning.

478.____. "The Measurement of Bilingual Behavior." *The Canadian Psychologist*, Vol. VIIa, No. 2 (April 1966), pp. 72-92.
This paper is an attempt to supply a technique for the analysis and measurement of bilingual behavior.

479.____. "Method Analysis: A Survey of Its Development, Principles, and Techniques." In Charles W. Kreidler, ed., "Report of the Sixteenth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies," Georgetown University *Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics*, No. 18 (1965), pp. 149-162. 10 references.

Gives a general idea of what has been done in the field of method analysis with specific reference to the field of language didactics.

*480.___. "Toward a Redefinition of Bilingualism." *Journal of the Canadian Linugistic Association*, Vol. II, No. 1 (March 1956), pp. 4-11.
An incorporation and elaboration of his article on "Bilingualism and Education," (1952), with an expansion of definitions.

481.___. "The Typology, Classification and Analysis of Language Tests." *Language Learning*, Special issue No. 3, (August 1968), pp. 163-166.
Discusses the above topics as they relate to the work of the International Center for Research on Bilingualism. See especially p. 166, where the Center's Thesaurus of Bilingualism project is briefly described.

482.___, and James A. Noonan. "An Experiment in Bilingual Education." *English Language Teaching*, Vol. VI, No. 4 (Summer 1952), pp. 125-132.
Describes a successful experiment in teaching Polish children aged 6-15 an academic subject in English after only 15-35 hours of instruction in English.

483.___, and Jean-Guy Savard. "The Indices of Coverage: A New Dimension in Lexicometrics." *IRAL (International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching)*, Vols. II-III (1967), pp. 71-121. 15 references.
Using dictionaries and other materials, the authors attempt to obtain a measure for the capacity of definition, inclusion, extension, and combination of 3,626 French words.

484. Mackun, Stanley. "The Changing Patterns of Polish Settlements in the Greater Detroit Area: Geographic Study of the Assimilation of an Ethnic Group." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1964. (*Dissertation Abstracts*, Vol. XXV, No. 4 (1964), pp. 4644.)

485. MacMillan, Robert W. *A Study of the Effect of Socioeconomic Factors on the School Achievement of Spanish-Speaking School Beginners*. Ph.D. dissertation. Supplement No. 1 to Thomas D. Horn's *A Study of the Effects of Intensive Oral-Aural English Language Instruction, Oral-Aural Spanish Language Instruction and Non-Oral-Aural Instruction on Reading Readiness in Grade One*. Cooperative Research Project No. 2648. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, 1966. 259 pp. Bibliography, pp. 251-258.

*486. Macnamara, John. *Bilingualism and Primary Education: A Study of Irish Experience*. Chicago, Illinois: Aldine Publishing Company; Edinburgh, United Kingdom: Edinburgh University Press, 1966. 173 pp. Bibliography, pp. 151-161. Reviewed by Joshua A. Fishman in *The Irish Journal of Education*, Vol. I, No. 1 (Summer 1967), pp. 79-83.
An up-to-date study of bilingualism in the elementary grades, based on scientific research and extensive surveys.

487.___. "The Bilingual's Linguistic Performance—A Psychological Overview." *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2 (April 1967), pp. 58-77.
Mainly six topics are discussed: the measurement of bilingualism, the distinction between coordinate and compound bilinguals, linguistic interference, language switching, and translation. Suggestions for future research.

488.___. "The Effects of Instruction in a Weaker Language." *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. XXIII, No. 2 (April 1967), pp. 121-135. 17 references.

A discussion of the attainment of bilingual students in general subjects taught through their second language.

489.___. "How Can One Measure the Extent of a Person's Bilingual Proficiency?" *Preprints*, International Seminar on the Description and Measurement of Bilingualism. Ottawa, Canada: Canadian National Commission for UNESCO, 1967.

490.___, ed. "Problems of Bilingualism." See *The Journal of Social Issues*.

491.___. "Successes and Failures in the Movement for the Restoration of Irish." Unpublished paper presented at the Conference on Comparative Studies of Language Planning, Honolulu, Hawaii, 1969. 29 pp. 61 bibliographical notes.

492.___. "The Use of Irish in Teaching Children from English-Speaking Homes: A Survey of Irish National Schools." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Edinburgh, 1963.

493.___, Marcel Krauthammer, and Marianne Bolgar. "Language Switching in Bilinguals as a Function of Stimulus and Response Uncertainty." *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, Vol. LXXVIII, No. 2, Part 1 (October 1968), pp. 208-215. 19 references.

Studied number-naming by French-English bilingual college students, and found that language switching in the bilinguals's speech production takes an observable amount of time.

494. Macrae, L. "The Problem of Bilingualism in Ceylon." *The Year Book of Education*, 1939, pp. 457-468.

495. Madaj, M. J. "Poles in the U.S." *New Catholic Encyclopedia*, 1967.

496. Madsen, William. *Mexican-Americans of South Texas*. Case Studies in Cultural Anthropology. New York: Holt, Reinhart and Winston, October 1965. 112 pp. 12 references.

Gives details on the aspects of behavior and beliefs that make the Mexican American way of life distinctive and then describes the resulting culture conflict.

497. Magnan, D. M. A. *Histoire de la race française aux Etats-Unis*. Paris: C. Amat, 1912. 356 pp.

"History of the French 'race' in the United States."

498. Makaroff, Julian. "America's Other Racial Minority: Japanese-Americans." *Contemporary Review*, Vol. CCX, No. 1217 (June 1967), pp. 310-314.

499. Malan, Gladys. "Realism in Bilingual Teaching." *Transvaal Education News*, Vol. XL (1944), pp. 13-14.

*500. Malherbe, Ernst Gideon. *The Bilingual School: A Study of Bilingualism in South Africa*. Second edition. With an introduction by T. J. Haarhoff. London and New York: Longmans, Green, and Company, 1946. First edition: Johannesburg, South Africa: The Bilingual School Association, 1943. 127 pp.

An important work on bilingual schooling. Although confined to Afrikaans-English bilingual programs in South Africa, it has far-reaching implications and conclusions.

501. ———. Inaugural Address, International Seminar on Bilingualism in Education, Aberystwyth, Wales, 20 August - 2 September 1960, published by the United Kingdom, National commission for UNESCO, in *Bilingualism in Education,* London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1960, pp. 3-20.

Authoritative guidelines for bilingual schooling by an international expert in the field.

502. ———. *The New Education in a Changing Empire*. Address delivered before the British Commonwealth Education Conference, London, July 1931. Pretoria, South Africa: J. L. Van Schaik, Ltd., 1933. 14 pp.

Deals with Afrikaans-English bilingual education in South Africa.

503. Manning, Clarence A. *A History of Slavic Studies in the United States*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: The Marquette University Press, 1957. 69-item bibliography.

Slavic language studies in the U.S. in the 19th and 20th centuries.

504. "Manpower: Emigration from Greece in 1961-62." *International Labour Review*, Vol. LXXXVI, No. 5 (November 1962), pp. 488-491 and Vol. LXXXVIII, No. 5 (November 1963), pp. 518-521.

Reports on the number of temporary and permanent emigrants from Greece. High emigration rates have been a cause of national concern.

505. Manuel, Herschel T. *Development of Inter-American Test Materials*. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, 1966. 109 pp.

Two new tests were developed in parallel English and Spanish editions: the preschool test of general ability, and Level 1 test of reading Spanish; the editions of earlier tests were revised.

506. ———. "Recruiting the Training Teachers for Spanish-Speaking Children in the Southwest." *School and Society*, Vol. XCVI, No. 2036 (March 30, 1968), pp. 211-214.

*507. ———. *Spanish-Speaking Children in the Southwest: Their Education and the Public Welfare.* Austin, Texas: The University of Texas Press, 1965. 222 pp. References, pp. 209-215.

An authoritative study of the many educational problems of the Mexican Americans.

508. ———. *Tests of General Ability and Reading. Inter-American Series*. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, 1963. 636 pp. Spanish and English editions.

Conclusions indicated that the new series of Inter-American tests of general ability and reading were successfully developed.

509. Marckwardt, Albert H., ed. *Language and Language Learning*. Papers relating to the Anglo-American Seminar on the Teaching of English at Dartmouth College, New Hampshire, 1966, Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968. 74 pp.

See especially Joshua A. Fishman's "The Breadth and Depth of English in the United States," pp. 43-53.

510. Marden, Charles F. *Minorities in American Society*. New York: American Book Company, 1952. 494 pp.

The focus is primarily on the relations between minority and majority groups: native-foreigner, white-colored, ward-wardship, Jewish-gentile, etc.

511. Margolis, Richard J. *The Losers: A Report on Puerto Ricans and the Public Schools*. New York: Aspira, Inc., May 1968. 17 pp.

This report identifies many of their unique educational problems ranging from language deficiencies and cultural differences to the virtual absence of Puerto Rican professionals from the school system.

512. Mariano, John Horace. *The Second Generation of Italians in New York City*. Boston, Massachusetts: The Christopher Publishing House, 1921. 317 pp. Bibliography, pp. 311-317.

513. Maurer, C. L. "Early Lutheran Education in Pennsylvania." *Proceedings of the Pennsylvania German Society*, Vol. XL (1932), p. 200.

514. Mayer, Kurt. "Cultural Pluralism and Linguistic Equilibrium in Switzerland." *American Sociological Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 2 (April 1951), pp. 157-163.

A comprehensive study of cultural pluralism and its implications in multilingual (French-German-Italian-Romansch) Switzerland. Detailed statistical data as well as a language chart are provided.

515. McCanne, Roy."A Study of Approaches to First-Grade English Reading Instruction for Children from Spanish-Speaking Homes." Denver, Colorado: Colorado State Department of Education, 1966. 270 pp.

Comparisons made among three approaches to developing English arts skills, particularly in basal, second language, and language-experimental reading.

516. McCarthy, Dorothea. "LanguageDevelopment in Children." In Leonard Carmichael, ed., *Manual of Child Psychology*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.; London: Chapman & Hall, Limited, 1946, pp. 476-581. Bibliography, pp. 568-587.

A review emphasizing the ontogenetic development of spoken language in normal children. The author attempts "to show the setting of this aspect of language development in the broader relationships which are involved, and to show something of the relationships of normal speech development to the acquisition of the secondary forms of language development in reading and writing." (p. 476.)

517. McConkey, W. G. "An Experiment in Bilingual Education." *Journal for Social Research, Pretoria*, Vol. II (1951), pp. 28-42.

A 1949 study inquiring into the time allocated to second language instruction (either English or Afrikaans) in the Natal schools and into the measure of success which had attended the giving of lessons on other subjects through the medium of the pupil's second language.

518. McDermott, John Francis. ed. *The French in the Mississippi Valley*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1965. 247 pp. Bibliographical footnotes.

519.——. *A Glossary of Mississippi Valley French, 1673-1850*. Washington University Studies, New Series, Language and Literature, No. 12. St. Louis, Missouri: Washington University,

December 1941. 161 pp. Bibliography, pp. 149-161.

520. McDowell, Neil A. *A Study of the Academic Capabilities and Achievements of Three Ethnic Groups: Anglo, Negro, and Spanish-Surname in San Antonio, Texas.* Ph.D. dissertation. Supplement No. 2 to Thomas D. Horn's *A Study of the Effects of Intensive Oral-Aural English Language Instruction, Oral-Aural Spanish Language Instruction, and Non-Oral-Aural Instruction on Reading Readiness in Grade One.* Cooperative Research Project No. 2648. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, 1966. 175 pp. Bibliography, pp. 169-173.

521. McKenney, J. Wilson. "The Dilemma of the Spanish Surname People of California." *California Teachers Association Journal*, Vol. LXI (March 1965), pp. 17, 38, 40.

522. McWilliams, Carey. *North From Mexico: The Spanish-Speaking Peoples of the United States.* The Peoples of America Series. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1949. 324 pp. Bibliographical notes, pp. 307-313.

One of the best all-round statements of the problems of the acculturation of the Spanish-speaking peoples of the Southwest, with broad perspectives including historical background and social origins.

523. ——. *Prejudice: Japanese-Americans, Symbol of Racial Intolerance.* Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1945. 337 pp.

A comprehensive study of our treatment of the Japanese before and during World War II.

524. Melaragno, Ralph J., and Gerald Newmark. "Final Report: A Pilot Study to Apply Evaluation-Revision Procedures in First-Grade Mexican-American Classrooms." Santa Monica, California: System Development Corporation, May 17, 1968.

525. Menarini, Alberto. "L'italo-americano degli Stati Uniti." *Lingua Nostra*, Vol. I, Nos. 5-6 (October-December 1939), pp. 152-160.

A thorough technical study of the dialects spoken by Italian immigrants in the U.S.

526. ——. "Sull'italo-americano degli Stati Uniti." In his *Ai margini della lingua* (Biblioteca de Lingua Nostra, Vol. VIII), Florence, Italy: Sansoni Editore, 1947, pp. 145-208. Reviewed by Robert A. Hall, Jr., in *Language*, Vol. XXIV, No. 2 (April-June 1948), pp. 239-241.

Deals with the transformation which Italian has undergone in this country, particularly in respect to vocabulary, and the influence of Italo-American speech on Italian dialects.

527. Meriam, Lewis, et al. *Problem of Indian Administration.* Baltimore, Maryland: John Hopkins Press, 1928.

Since its publication, this work, which covers many areas of concern with respect to Indian affairs in existence at that time, was the instigator of many new programs and policies effecting Indian economics, schooling, etc., down to the present day.

528. Messinger, Milton A. "The Forgotten Child: A Bibliography, with Special Emphasis on Materials Relating to the Education of Spanish-Speaking People in the United States." The University of Texas, Department of History and Philosophy of Education, Austin, Texas, July 15, 1967.

*529. Mexican-American Study Project. Los Angeles, California: University of California, Graduate School of Business Administration, 1967. Includes:

1. *Education and Income of Mexican-Americans of the Southwest.*
2. *Mexican Immigration to the United States.*
3. *Bibliography.*
4. *Residential Sergregation in the Urban Southwest.*
5. *The Burden of Poverty.*

530. Meyerstein, Ruth G. "Selected Problems of Bilingualism Among Immigrant Slovaks." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1959. 208 pp. (*Dissertation Abstracts*, Vol. XX (1959), p. 1774.)

Applies principles of modern linguistic science and bilingualism to the description of some speech features characteristic of Slovak immigrants in the U.S.

531. Meynen, Emil. *Bibliography on German Settlements in Colonial North America, Especially on the Pennsylvania Germans and Their Descendants, 1683-1933*. Leipzig: O. Harrassowitz, 1937. 636 pp.

532. Miljan, Toivo. *Bilingualism in Finland*. Comparative Studies. Data Book on Finland. Vol. I, by Toivo Miljan, including a statistical chapter by John G. Gordon. Prepared under the general supervision of Prof. Kenneth D. McRae, with the research assistance of John G. Gordon, and the editorial assistance of Miss Judy M. C. Dibben. A background study prepared for the Canadian Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism.

533. Miller, George A., and Frank Smith, eds. *The Genesis of Language: A Psycholinguistic Approach*. Proceedings of a conference on "Language Development in Children," sponsored by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institute of Health. Cambridge, Massachusetts, and London, England: The M.I.T. Press, 1966. 400 pp. References at end of each chapter.

A penetrating analysis of the mystery of language development in children.

534. Miller, Robert L. *The Linguistic Relativity Principle and Humboldtian Ethnolinguistics: A History and Appraisal*. The Hague, Paris: Mouton & Co., 1968. 127 pp. Bibliography, pp. 120-127.

535. Mills, C., Clarence Senior, and Rose Kohn Senior. *The Puerto-Rican Journey*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1950. 238 pp.

A report on the Puerto Rican migration to New York and of the migrants' colonies in Spanish Harlem, with resulting problems of acculturation.

536. Mitchell, A. J. "The Effect of Bilingualism in the Measurement of Intelligence." *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 1 (September 1937), pp. 29-37.

Concludes that Spanish-speaking children suffer from an inferiority in ability to think accurately in the adopted language.

537. "Modern-Day Vikings in New Jersey." *Christian Science Monitor* (Magazine section), February 4, 1950, pp. 8-9.

Description of the picturesque town of Telemark, New Jersey.

538. Modern Language Association of America. "Childhood and Second Language Learning." FL [Foreign Language] *Bullettin*, No. 49 (August 1956).

*539. *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLIX, Nos. 3 and 4 (March and April 1965). "Bilingualism and the Bilingual Child: A Symposium." Contents:

Foreword by Robert F. Roeming.

Fishman, Joshua A. "The Status and Prospects of Bilingualism in the United States," pp. 143-155.

Andersson, Theodore. "A New Focus on the Bilingual Child," pp. 156-160.

Christian, Chester. "The Acculturation of the Bilingual Child," pp. 160-165.

Gaarder, Bruce A. "Teaching the Bilingual Child: Research, Development and Policy," pp. 165-175.

Hakes, David T. "Psychological Aspects of Bilingualism," pp. 220-226.

Fishman, Joshua A. "Bilingualism, Intelligence, and Language Learning," pp. 227-237.

Rojas, Pauline M. "Instructional Materials and Aids to Facilitate Teaching the Bilingual Child," pp. 237-239.

*540. Modiano, Nancy. "National or Mother Tongue in Beginning Reading: A Comparative Study." *Research in the Teaching of English*, Vol. II, No. 1 (April 1968), pp. 32-43. Bibliographical footnotes.

Report of an experiment conducted among several Indian tribes in the Highlands of Mexico.

541. Moreland, Lilian. *A Select Bibliography on Bilingualism*. Capetown, South Africa: University of Capetown, December 1948. 37 pp. 161 items, partially annotated.

A fine, but old, resource, with the countries of Belgium, Canada, Finland, Ireland, South Africa, Switzerland, and Wales emphasized.

542. Morrison, John R. "Bilingualism: Some Psychological Aspects." *The Advancement of Science*, Vol. XIV, No. 56 (March 1958), pp. 287-290.

Concerned with evaluation and research. Reviews types of useful tests, examples of good evaluation and research, and stresses the need for much more of both.

543. Mousset, Paul. "Un îlot de vieille France en Nouvelle-Angleterre: 1,200,000 franco-américains, parfaits citoyens des U.S.A., conservent pieusement la langue et la foi de leurs pères." *France-Illustration*, Vol. IX, No. 384 (February 21, 1953), pp. 249-252.

An optimistic appraisal of Franco-American ethnicity.

544. ——. "La Louisiane, qui fête son cent-cinquantenaire, compte 700,000 habitants de langue francaise." *France-Illustration*, Vol. IX, No. 382 (February 7, 1953), pp. 186-189.

A Parisian magazine publishes an article, with illustrations, in order for the French living in France to remember their "language brothers" in Louisiana.

545. Mueller, Hugo J., ed. See Georgetown University *Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics*, No. 7 (September 1954).

546. Mulder, Arnold. *Americans from Holland*. The Peoples of America series, edited by Louis Adamic. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1947. 320 pp. Bibliography, pp. 309-313.

Detailed account of Dutch-American life in the United States. See Chapter XXIV, "A Bilingual Culture."

547. Muller, Seigfried H. *The World's Living Languages: Basic Facts of Their Structure, Kinship, Location, and Number of Speakers*. New York: Frederick Ungar Publishing Co., 1964. 21 pp. Bibliography, pp. 191-194.

A useful book for quick reference, although many of the figures cited are only rough estimates.

548. Munch, Peter A. "Segregation and Assimilation of Norwegian Settlements in Wisconsin." *Norwegian-American Studies and Records,* Vol. XVIII (1954), pp.102-140.

A detailed sociological study of Norwegian Settlements in Dune and Vernon counties, Wisconsin. Describes primarily the interaction between Norwegian and Anglo residents of these counties. Findings are applicable to settlements in other areas.

549. ——. "Social Adjustment Among Wisconsin Norwegians." *American Sociological Review,* Vol. XIV, No. 6 (December 1949), pp. 780-787.

550. Musmanno, Michael A. *The Story of the Italians in America.* Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1965. 300 pp. Bibliography, pp. 279-285.

551. Myers, Jerome K. "Assimilation in the Political Community." *Sociology and Social Research*, Vol. XXXV, No. 3 (January-February 1951), pp. 175-182.

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552. Nadeau, Gabriel. "Notes pour servir à une bibliographie franco-américaine." *Bulletin de la Société Historique Franco-Américaine,* Année 1952, pp. 64-65. Manchester, New Hampshire, 1953. Paper read before the French VIII Group of the MLA at the Annual Meeting in 1952.

Bibliographical notes on the Franco-Americans.

553. Naert, Pierre, Halldór Halldórsson, et al. "Appel d'un ensemble de professeurs des universités scandinaves en faveur de groupes ethniques et de langues menacées de disparition." *Revue de Psychologie des Peuples,* Vol. XVII (1962), pp. 350-358.

A fervent appeal made by forty-nine Scandinavian professors in favor of preserving the languages which are in danger of becoming extinct.

554. Nahirny, Vladimir C., and Joshua A. Fishman. "American Immigrant Groups: Ethnic Identification and the Problem of Generations." *Sociological Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 3 (November 1965), pp. 311-326. 35 bibliographical notes.

555. The National Advisory Committee on Mexican American Education. *The Mexican American: Quest for Equality: A Report*. Albuquerque, New Mexico: Southwestern Cooperative Laboratory, 1968.

States in brief form the educational and social priorities for this group.

556. National Conference on Social Work. *Minority Groups: Segregation and Integration.* Papers presented at the 82nd annual forum of the National Conference of Social Work. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. 110 pp.

Discusses the relations between the migrant and the community, the citizen's role toward migrants, school desergregation and youth programs. Short section on Indians.

557. National Education Association, Department of Rural Education. *The Invisible Minority...Pero No Vencibles*. Report of the NEA-Tucson Survey on the Teaching of Spanish to the Spanish-Speaking. Joseph Stocker, editor. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1966. 39 pp.

This report initially presents a brief survey of the background of the Mexican American in the five-state Southwest area and the problems he encounters, followed by details of some innovative programs for Spanish-speaking children.

558.____. *Las Voces Nuevas del Sudoeste*. Third National NEA–PR&R Conference on Civil and Human Rights in Education. Symposium: "The Spanish-Speaking Child in the Schools of the Southwest," Tucson, Arizona, October 30-31, 1966. Elinor Hart, editor. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.

A "blueprint for action" in six areas ranging from the individual classroom to the federal government.

559. Nelson, E. Clifford, and Eugene L. Fevold. *The Lutheran Church Among Norwegian-Americans: A History of the Evangelical Lutheran Church*. Vol. I, 1825-1890; Vol. II, 1890-1959. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Augsburg Publishing House, 1960.

560. Nelson, Helge. *The Swedes and the Swedish Settlements in North America*. 2 vols. (I: *Text* and II: *Atlas*). Skrifter Utgivna av Kungl. Humanistika Vetenskapssamfundet i Lund, XXXVII. New York: Albert Bonnier, 1943. 441 and 70 pp. Bibliography, Vol. I, pp. 410-418.

A classic in the literature dealing with Swedish-Americans. This exhaustive study contains practically all the available information on American Swedes to date.

561. Nelson, Lowry. "Speaking of Tongues." *American Journal of Scoiology*, Vol. LIV, No. 3 (November 1948), pp. 202-210.

Retention rates for various foreign languages spoken in the U.S.

562. Nesiah, K. *The Mother Tongue in Education*. Colombo, Ceylon: Ola Book Company, 1950.

563. "New Ground Rules for Immigration to the U.S." *Out of Many....*Published by the American Council for Nationalities Service, Vol. I, No. 1 (March 1969), pp. 1-2.

Presents a brief, clear picture of the new immigration policies with their inherent problems and positive changes from past legislation.

564. Newman, Louis. "Jewish Education." *American Jewish Yearbook*, Vol. LXV, 1964, pp. 84-92.

Describes recent trends in American Jewish Education: summer study programs, the day-school movement, teacher-training courses, curriculum developments, etc.

565. New York City, Board of Education. *The Puerto-Rican Study 1953-1957: A Report on the Education and Adjustment of Puerto-Rican Pupils in the Public Schools of the City of New York*. New York, 1958. 265 pp. Bibliography, pp. 260-265.

A volume summarizing, evaluating, and setting further goals for the program for Puerto-Rican children in New York schools.

566. New York City Mayor's Committee on Puerto Rican Affairs. *The Puerto Rican Pupils in the Public Schools of New York City*. New York, 1951.

567. Noreen, Sister, D. C. "A Bilingual Curriculum for Spanish-Americans: A Regional Problem With Nation-Wide Implications." *Catholic School Journal*, Vol. LXVI, No. 1 (January 1966), pp. 25-26.

*568. Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. *The Challenge of Bilingualism*, report of Working Committee II. In G. Reginald Bishop, Jr., ed., *Foreign Language Teaching: Challenges to the Profession:* Reports of the Working Committee, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1965, pp. 54-101. 9 references.

This report is essential for information concerning the rationale behind bilingual schooling. A group of recognized experts analyze bilingualism problems in the U.S. and unanimously advocates bilingual education for bilingual children, and proposes guidelines for the realization of bilingual programs.

569. Nostrand, Howard Lee. "Report on a Level-II Standard for Understanding of the Sociocultural Context." In Jerrold L. Mordaunt, ed., *Proceedings of the Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Languages*, Nineteenth Annual Meeting, Carroll College, April 19-20, 1968, Vol. XIX, pp. 8-18. Victoria, British Columbia, Canada: The University of Victoria, 1968.

Proposes a standard for an understanding of the people's culture and social structure after two senior-high-school years of a language or whatever length of time the student may need at a lower or a high age to reach the same proficiency.

570.___. *Understanding Complex Structures: A Language Teacher's Handbook*. Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Company, a division of Ginn and Company. In press.

571. Nova Scotia, Department of Education. *Program of Studies in the Schools of Nova Scotia: 1968-1969*. Published by authority of the Minister of Education. Halifax, Nova Scotia: Publication and Information, and Curriculum Divisions, 1968. 123 pp.

572. O'Doherty, E. F. "Bilingual School Policy." *Studies*, Vol. XLVII (Autumn 1958), pp. 259-268.

The author questions the effectiveness of bilingual schooling in Ireland.

573.___. "Bilingualism: Educational Aspects." *The Advancement of Science*, Vol. XIV, No. 56 (March 1958), pp. 282-287.

Distinguishes the "pseudo-bilingual" from the genuine bilingual.

574. Officer, James E. *Indians in School: A Study of the Development of Educational Facilities for Arizona Indians*. Tucson, Arizona: University of Arizona, Bureau of Ethnic Research, 1956.

Includes the language situation and Indian attitudes toward education. Also contains a brief history of the then current educational situation among Arizona's Indian tribes.

575. Oficina Internacional de Educación. *El bilingüismo y la educación.* Trabajos de la *Conférence Internationale sur le Bilinguisme* celebrada en Luxemburgo del 2 al 5 de abril de 1928. Translated from English by Vicente Valls Anglés. Ediciones de "La Lectura." Madrid, Spain: Espasa-Calpe, S.A., 1932. 226 pp.

576. Oftedal, Magne. "The Vowel System of a Norwegian Dialect in Wisconsin." *Language*, Vol. XXV, No. 3 (July-September 1949), pp. 261-267.

577. Ohannessian, Sirarpi. "Patterns of Teacher Preparation in the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages." In Robert B. Kaplan, ed., *Selected Conference Papers of the Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language (A Section of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs), 1966*. Los Angeles, California: The University of Southern California Press, 1966, pp. 8-14. NAFSA Studies and Papers, English Language Series, No. 12.

578.____. *Planning Conference for a Bilingual Kindergarten Program for Navajo Children: Conclusions and Recommendations, October 11-12, 1968*. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, April 1969. 16 pp.

579.____. *The Study of the Problems of Teaching English to American Indians: Report and Recommendations*. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, July 1967. 40 pp. 27 references.

A group of specialists in fields related to these problems assessed the learning and teaching of English in several specified areas in elementary and secondary schools sponsored by the B.I.A. and in selected public schools having American Indian students. The main problem areas dealt with administration, teachers, student performance, and instructional materials.

580.____, ed., with assistance of Carol J. Kreidler, Beryl Dwight, and Julia Sableski. *Reference Lists of Materials for English as a Second Language*. 2 vols. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1964-1966. (See Pedtke, Dorothy for 1968 Supplement.)

A comprehensive annotated bibliography covering materials on the teaching of English as a second language produced between 1953 and 1963. Contents:
Part I: *Texts, Readers, Dictionaries, Tests,*
Part II: *Background, Materials, Methodology.*

581. Oittinen, R. H. "The Finish School System." *UNESCO Education Abstracts*, Vol. XII, No. 2 (1960), pp. 3-8.

582. Olszyk, Edmund G. *The Polish Press in America*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Marquette University Press, 1940. Bibliography, pp. 92-95.

583. Ornstein, Jacob. "The Development and Status of Slavic and East European Studies in America Since World War II." *American Slavic and East European Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 3 (October 1957), pp. 369-388.

584.____. "Patterns of Language Planning in the New States." *World Politics*, Vol. XVII, No. 1 (October 1964), pp. 40-49.

Discusses the acute language problems of the great number of recently independent states (especially in Africa) where a wide variety of vernaculars coexist, with none being predominant.

585.____. "Soviet Language Policy: Theory and Practice." *Slavic and East European Journal*, Vol. XVII, No. 1 (Spring 1959), pp. 1-24. 71 bibliographical footnotes.

A study of Soviet patterns of Russification after World War II, the progressively intensified teaching of the Russian language in the schools, and the high degree of bilingualism attained by minority groups in multilingual Soviet Union.

586. Osborn, Lynn R. "A Bibliography of North American Indian Speech and Spoken Language." Lawrence, Kansas: The University of Kansas, Communication Research Center, 1968. Mimeographed. 55 pp.

This very comprehensive bilbiography draws together citations to relevant materials concerning the spoken language of the North American Indian. It includes 132 theses and dissertations and 500 articles, books, and published reports from both domestic and foreign sources.

*587. Osgood, Charles E., and Susan M. Ervin. "Second Language Learning and Bilingualism." Supplement to *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. XL, No. 4, Part 2 (October 1954), pp. 139-146. (Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems; Report of the 1953 Summer Seminar Sponsored by the Committee on Linguistics and Psychology of the Social Science Research Council, edited by Charles E. Osgood and Thomas A. Sebeok. Baltimore, Maryland: Waverly Press, Inc., 1954.)

Technical treatment of the psychological aspects of the acquisition and utilization of two linguistic codes. Distinction made between *compound* and *coordinate* language systems.

588. O'Shea, A. B. "How Egypt Solves Its Language Problems." *Studies*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 151 (September 1949), pp. 318-324.

A clear picture of the multilingualism that existed in Egypt when foreign influence in the country was still strong.

589. Osterberg, Tore. *Bilingualism and the First School Language: An Educational Problem Illustrated by Results from a Swedish Dialect Area.* Umea, Sweden: Västerbottens Tryckeri AB, 1961. 158 pp. Bibliography, pp. 139-151.

A report of research findings which focuses on the connection between bilingualism and language progress, motor functions, personal and social adaptation, school performance, teaching method, etc., as they relate to the Pitea dialect area in Sweden.

590. Ott, Elizabeth H. "Organizing Content for the Bilingual Child." In Carol J. Kreidler, ed., *On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*, Series II, Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966, pp. 55-59.

Description of a curriculum designed to meet the particular needs of the non-English-speaking child.

591.____. *A Study of Levels of Fluency and Proficiency in Oral English of Spanish-speaking School Beginners.* Ph.D dissertation. Oral English Language Proficiency Test II, The San Antonio, Texas, Language Research Project, Thomas D. Horn, Director, Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, 1967. 149 pp.

592. Overbeke, Maurits van. "La description phonétique et phonologique d'une situation bilingue." *La Linguistique*, No. 2 (1968), pp. 93-109.

A phonetic and phonological description of bilingualism, with emphasis on French-Flemish bilingualism in Belgium.

593. *PACE Report*. 201 Taylor Education Building, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky 40506.

A new periodical publication, started in January 1968, whose prime purpose is to provide Title III project directors with a continuing source of news and information on educational innovation.

594. Padilla, Elena. *Up from Puerto Rico*. Morningside Heights, New York: Columbia University Press, 1958. 317 pp.

A documentary story written for the general reader providing a detailed description of the ways of life and changing culture of Puerto Ricans in a New York City slum.

595. Palisi, Bartolomeo J. "Ethnic Patterns of Freindship." *Phylon*, Vol. XXVII, No. 3 (Fall 1966), pp. 217-225.

Concludes that second-generation people are likely to have more intimate friends than first-generation persons.

596.____ . "Patterns of Social Participation in a Two-Generation Sample of Italian-American." *Sociological Quarterly*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (Spring 1966), pp. 167-178.

597. Pap, Leo. *Portuguese-American Speech: An Outline of Speech Conditions Among Portuguese Immigrants in New England and Elsewhere in the United States*. New York: King's Crown Press, 1949. 223 pp. Bibliography, pp. 193-199.

Provides an outline of Portuguese language history, economic conditions, culture, and social traits in America.

598. Parenton, Vernon J. "Notes on the Social Organization of a French Village in South Louisiana." *Social Forces*, Vol. XVII, No. 1 (October 1938), pp. 73-82.

Describes the essential social characteristics of the French-speaking people along Bayou Lafourche.

599.____ . "Socio-Psychological Integration in a Rural French-Speaking Section of Louisiana." *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, Vol. XXX, No. 3 (December 1949), pp. 188-195.

A description of the social adaptation of the Acadians of Bayou Lafourche.

600. Parker, William Riley. *The National Interest and Foreign Languages*. Third edition. Department of State publication No. 7326. International Organization and Conference Series, No. 26. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 1961, released March 1962. 159 pp. References at end of each chapter.

Discusses whether or not the national interest would be served by increased study of modern foreign languages in the United States including how much and what sort of language study would best serve the country and the individual citizen.

601. Passow, A. Henry, Miriam Goldberg, and Abraham J. Tannenbaum, eds. *Education of the Disadvantaged: A Book of Readings*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967. 503 pp. Bibliographies.

A group of 31 articles on the education of disadvantaged children in the United States. Emphasis is put on the Negroes, but Indians and immigrants are also treated.

602. Paulston, Christina Bratt. "Las escuelas bilingües: The Peruvian Experience." Paper read at the National TESOL Convention, Chicago, Illinois, March 7, 1969. 13 pp. 13 references.

A brief description of the public bilingual schools in Peru, the role of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, as well as an overall picture of education in Peru.

603. Pavlovitch, Milivoïe. *Le langage enfantin: acquisition du serbe et du français par un enfant serbe*. Paris: Librairie Ancienne Honoré Champion, Editeur, 1920. 203 pp. Bibliography, pp. 181-189.

A study of the development of language in a bilingual (French-Serbian) child. As a conclusion, a whole theory of child language is presented.

*604. Peal, Elizabeth, and Wallace E. Lambert. "The Relation of Bilingualism to Intelligence." *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied*, Vol. LXXVI, No. 27, Whole No. 546 (1962), pp. 1-23 References, pp. 22-23.

A study of the effect of bilingualism on intellectual functioning. This famous paper marks a new period in bilingual research.

605. Peate, Iorwerth C. "The Welsh Language as a Medium of Instruction in the University of Wales." *Lochlann, A Review of Celtic Studies*, Vol. I (1958), pp. 261-262.

Reports eight recommendations to inquire into the advisability of establishing as one of the constituent Colleges of the University of Wales a College in which the medium of instruction would be the Welsh language.

606. Pedtke, Dorothy, ed. *Reference List of Materials for English as a Second Language: Supplement*. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1968. (See Ohannessian, Sirarpi, ed., with the assistance of Carol J. Kreidler, Beryl Dwight, and Julia Sableski for original.)

607. Pellegrini, Angelo M. *Americans By Choice*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956. 240 pp.

The history of a group of Italian immigrants presented as a novel.

608. Peña, Albar A. "A Comparative Study of Selected Syntactical Structures of the Oral Language Status in Spanish and English of Disadvantaged First Grade Spanish-Speaking Children." Austin, Texas: The University of Texas, 1967.

609. Penfield, Wilder G. "A Consideration of the Neurophysiological Mechanisms of Speech and Some Educational Consequences." *Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, Vol. LXXXII, No. 5 (May 1953).

610. ———. "The Uncommitted Cortex: The Child's Changing Brain." *The Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. CCXIV, No. 1 (July 1964).

*611. ———, and Lamar Roberts. *Speech and Brain-Mechanisms*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1959.

612. Perren, G. E. "Bilingualism, or Replacement? English in West Africa." *English Language Teaching*, Vol. XIII, No. 1 (October-December 1958), pp. 18-22.

Suggests that in Kenya, where English is an official language and there is no common vernacular, bilingualism is "a necessity which cannot be avoided," and its advantages should be extended.

613. Phillips. T. A. "Laboratory Experiences for Cuban Refugees." *Teachers College Journal*. (Terre Haute: Indiana State University), January 1965.

614. Pieris, Ralph. "Bilingualism and Cultural Marginality." *British Journal of Sociology*, Vol. II, No. 4 (December 1951), pp. 328-339. Bibliographical footnotes.

Valuable thoughts on languages and bilingualism as related to culture, with examples taken mainly throughout the British Commonwealth.

615. Pierson, Oris Emerald. *Norwegian Settlements in Bosque County, Texas*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, The University of Texas, June 1947.

616. Pietrzyk, Alfred, et al. *Selected Titles in Sociolinguistics: An Interim Bibliography of Works on Multilingualism Language Standardization, and Languages of Wider Communication*. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1967. 226 pp.

The primary emphasis is on language in its relation to sociological phenomena. There is a listing of bibliography relevant to the field and general reference works are included.

617. Pike, Kenneth L. "Toward a Theory of Change and Bilingualism." *Studies in Linguistics*, Vol. XV, Nos. 1-2 (Summer 1960), pp. 1-7. Bibliographical notes.

Discusses setting up a frame of reference to discuss the relationships between change of system in general and the status of the languages of the bilingual or the dialects or styles of the monolingual.

618. Pines, Maya. *Revolution in Learning: The Years from Birth to Six*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967. 244 pp. Bibliography, pp. 232-237.

Deals with how a child learns with special emphasis on language development.

619. Pintner, Rudolf. "The Influence of Language Background on Intelligence Tests." *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. III (1932), pp. 235-240. 3 references.

Suggests that a bilingual environment may prevent some individuals from ever really indicating their maximum intelligence on a verbal group intelligence test.

620. ——, and Seth Arsenian. "The Relation of Bilingualism to Verbal Intelligence and School Adjustment." *The Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXXI, No. 4 (December 1937), pp. 255-263. 11 references.

Discusses the bilingual (Yiddish/English) children of New York.

621. Pisani, Lawrence Frank. *The Italian in America: A Social Study and History*. An Exposition University Book. New York: Exposition Press, 1957. 293 pp. Includes bibliographies.

Attempts to show the part played by Italian immigrants in American history.

622. *Planning for Non-English Speaking Pupils*. Miami: Dade County Public Schools, 1963. 34 pp.

Presents the necessary guidelines for the development of an adequate bilingual program, including a summary of the guiding principles underlying the program, the details of the administration, and techniques used in teaching.

623. Pochmann, H., comp., and A. Schultz, ed. *Bibliography of German Culture in America to 1940*. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1953. 483 pp.

A very useful bibliography on German Americans, whose index lists 170 entries under the single heading "German American Schools."

624. Poirier, Pascal. *Le parler franco-acadien et ses origines*. Quebec, Canada: Imprimerie Franciscaine Missionnaire, 1928. 339 pp.

Origins, description, and evolution of the French-Acadian dialect.

625. Politzer, Robert L. "Problems in Applying Foreign Language Teaching Methods to the Teaching of Standard English as a Second Dialect." Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Research and Development, Memorandum No. 40. Stanford, California: Stanford University, December 1968. 21 pp. Bibliography, pp. 19-21.

A series of insights into the second dialect teaching situation with special emphasis on the differences between this and foreign language teaching with specific reference to the role of the native dialect, the definition of the standard, special factor affecting the pupil, teaching methodology, and teacher training.

626. Post, P. "Over de Woordenschat van Zesjarige kindered in tweetalig Friesland." Groningen.

A study in Dutch-Frisian bilingualism, summarized in *UNESCO Education Abstracts*, Vol. X, April-May 1958.

627. Potts, Alfred M., II. *Knowing and Educating the Disadvantaged – An Annotated Bibliography*. Alamosa, Colorado: Adams State College, The Center for Cultural Studies, 1965. 462 pp.

An inclusive bibliography describing the agricultural migrant and his family in many accounts of their factual circumstances and programs designed to benefit them.

628. Pousland, Edward. *Etude sémantique de l'anglicisme dans le parler franco-américain de Salem (Nouvelle-Angleterre)*. Société de Publications Romanes et Françaises, Vol. XII, Paris: Librairie E. Droz, 1933. 309 pp. Bibliography, pp. 287-295.

Semantic study of Anglicisms in the Franco-American Dialect of Salem, Massachusetts.

629. Powers, Francis, and Marjorie Hetzler. *Successful Methods of Teaching English to Bilingual Children in Seattle Public Schools*. Project in Research in Universities. Pamphlet No. 76. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1937. 17 pp. "A Review of Studies on Bilingualism," pp. 9-16.

630. Prator, Clifford H., Jr. *Language Teaching in the Philippines: A Report*. Manila, Philippines: U.S. Educational Foundation in the Philippines, 1956. 96 pp.

The author covers the language situation in the islands and the possibilities of improving the teaching of English, including the Iloilo experiment in the use of the vernacular for the first stages of elementary instruction.

631. Prezzolini, Giuseppe. *Tutta l'America*. Florence, Italy: Vallecchi Editore, 1958. 836 pp.

America as seen by an Italian-American.

632. Prior, G. "The French Canadians in New England." Unpublished master's thesis, Brown University, 1932.

633. Pryor, Guy C. "Evaluation of the Bilingual Project of Harlandale Independent School District, San Antonio, Texas, in the First Grade of Four Elementary Schools During 1966-1967 School Year." For Harlandale Independent School District. San Antonio,

Texas: Our Lady of the Lake College, June 1967. 70 pp. Mimeographed.

The purpose of this experiment was to provide competent instruction in both Spanish and English by a bilingual teacher and to compare the learning, behavior, personal adjustment of pupils and attitude of parents with these same aspects of growth and learning. The result was that in the bilingual sections of all four schools pupils could speak, read, and write two languages at the end of the *first grade*.

634. Radin, Paul. *The Italians of San Francisco: Their Adjustment and Acculturation.* n.p., 1935. Monograph No. 1. Multigraphed abstract from the SERA Project 2-F2-98 (3-F2-145): Cultural Anthropology.

635. Raffler-Engel, Walburga von. "Investigation of Italo-American Bilinguals." *Zeitschrift für Phonetik Sprachwissenschaft und Kommunikationsforschung*, Vol. XIV, No. 2 (1961), pp. 127-130.

A technical analysis of the speech patterns of Italian Americans.

636. ___ . *Il prelinguaggio infantile.* Studi grammaticali e linguistici, No. 7. Brescia, Italy: Paideia, 1964.

This study of childhood language concludes that the initial stage of infant speech is purely a melodic expression.

637. Raisner, Arnold. "New Horizons for the Student of Spanish-Speaking Background." *High Points*, Vol. XLVIII, No. 2 (February 1966), pp. 19-23.

An experimental program of 18 classes devised to teach Science in Spanish to junior high school pupils in New York.

638. ___ , Philip Bolger, and Carmen Sanguinetti. *Science Instruction in Spanish for Pupils of Spanish-Speaking Background: An Experiment in Bilingualism.* Final Report, Project No. 2370, Contract No. 407-9, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Research, June 1967. 180 pp. 49 references.

An experiment in bilingual schooling to improve self-image.

639. Rapier, Jacqueline L. "Effects of Verbal Mediation Upon the Learning of Mexican-American Children." *California Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XVIII, No. 1 (January 1967), pp. 40-48. 4 references.

These experiments support Jensen's earlier findings (1961) that the low IQ of Mexican Americans is of a different nature than the low IQ of Anglo-Americans and thus Mexican Americans require different kinds of educational treatment.

640. Raubicheck, Letitia. "Psychology of Multilingualism." *Volta Review*, Vol. XXXVI, No. 1 (January 1934), pp. 17-20, 57-58.

Some thoughts on language, culture, second-language learning, and bilingualism.

641. Read, Allen Walker. "Bilingualism in the Middle Colonies, 1725-1775." *American Speech*, Vol. XXI, No. 2 (April 1937), pp. 93-99.

In an attempt to learn about the "melting pot" in the colonial era, the author uses material drawn from newspaper advertisements for runaway slaves and indentured servants to build a picture of the linguistic conditions of the time in Pennsylvania and New York.

642. Read, William A. *Louisiana French*. Revised edition. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1963. 263 pp. Bibliography, pp. 223-245. First published in 1931.

An all-time classic in the literature on French dialects in Louisiana. Traces the history and evolution of the language in Louisiana, analyzes thoroughly the foreign elements in it (Indian, German, English, African, Spanish, and Italian words).

643. Reed, Carroll E., and L. W. Seifert. *A Linugistic Atlas of Pennsylvania German*. Marburg: Lahn, 1954.

644. Rice, Frank A., ed. *Study of the Role of Second Languages in Asia, Africa, and Latin America*. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1962. 123 pp.

The results of a survey to investigate the nature and extent of the problem of second-language learning as a factor in national development of these countries. This document represents essentially the reaction of half a dozen specialists to some of the problems dealt with in the survey.

*645. Richardson, Mabel Wilson. "An Evaluation of Certain Aspects of the Academic Achievement of Elementary Pupils in a Bilingual Program: A Project." Coral Gables, Florida: The University of Miami, January 1968. Mimeographed. 72 pp. 43-item bibliography. Also published as a D.Ed. dissertation, The University of Miami, January 1968.

A study of the Coral Way Elementary School (Dade County, Florida) bilingual program, with a review of previous literature on the philosophy of language teaching.

646.____ , and A. Bruce Gaarder. See Gaarder and Richardson.

647. Riessman, Frank. *The Culturally Deprived Child*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1962. 140 pp. Bibliography, pp. 131-133.

Provides information concerning disadvantaged children in the United States and the problems they present.

648. Robinett, Betty Wallace, ed. *On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Series III. Papers read at the TESOL Conference, New York City, March 17-19, 1966. Washington, D.C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1967. 189 pp.

Contains articles on the teaching of English as a second language in Eastern Europe, Japan, France; reports on special programs (language policy in the primary schools of Kenya, education of the Spanish-speaking child in Florida, ESL for Alaska natives, ESL for pupils of FL background, especially Chinese and Arabic, the training of ESL teachers).

649. Rodgers, Raymond. "Prepared Text of Remarks at the (First) French-Acadian Conference of the Louisiana Department of Education, January 20, 1968." Unpublished paper, 6 pp.

Explores the implications of the proposed Quebec-Louisiana Agreement on Cultural Cooperation. Expresses hope for the establishment of French-English bilingual programs in Louisiana.

650. Roessel, Robert A., Jr., et al. "An Overview of the Rough Rock Demonstration School." *Journal of American Indian Education*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (January 1968), pp. 1-6.

651. Rojas, Pauline M. "Instructional Materials and Aids to Facilitate Teaching a Bilingual Child." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XLIX, No. 4 (April 1965), pp. 237-239.

652.——. "The Miami Experience in Bilingual Education." In Carol J. Kreidler, ed., *On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: Series II*, Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966, pp. 43-45.

A brief description of the Dade County Public Schools' Spanish-English bilingual programs, their administrative policy, their curriculum, and the Ford Foundation Project.

653. Romanides, John S. "The Orthodox: Arrival and Dialogue." *The Christian Century*, Vol. LXXX, No. 46 (November 13, 1963), pp. 1399-1403.

Brief statement on the number of Orthodox parishes and parishioners in the United States.

654. Rona, José Pedro. "The Social and Cultural Status of Guaraní in Paraguay." Unpublished paper, given at the Sociolinguistics Conference, University of California at Los Angeles, May 1964.

655. Ronjat, Jules. *Le développement du langage observé chez un enfant bilingue.* Paris: Librairie Ancienne H. Champion, 1913. 155 pp.

A classic study of the linguistic progress of a child to whom two languages, French and German, were spoken with equal frequency. Emphasizes the facility of children to learn more than one language at the same time.

656. Rose, Arnold M., and Caroline B., eds. *Minority Problems: A Textbook of Readings in Intergroup Relations*. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1965. 438 pp.

A sequence of studies analyzing the nature of minority problems in the United States as well as in other parts of the world, types of tension and discrimination, group identification and minority adjustment, and the causes of prejudice, with proposed techniques for eliminating minority problems.

657. Rosenthal, Robert, and Lenore Jacobson. *Pygmalion in the Classroom: Teacher Expectation and Pupils' Intellectual Development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968. 240 pp. Bibliography, pp. 219-229.

658. Rossi, Peter H., and Alice S. "Some Effects of Parochial School Education in America." *Daedalus*, Vol. XC, No. 2 (Spring 1961), pp. 300-328. References.

One of the very rare studies devoted exclusively to the parochial school situation in America. Historical roots are discussed, as well as doctrinal basis, organization structure, and social context.

659. Rosten, Leo. *The Joys of Yiddish*....New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1968.

660. Roucek, Joseph S. "The Contributions of Japanese to the U.S." *The Study of Current English*, Vol. XIX (August 1964), pp. 6-9; Vol. XIX, No. 9 (September 1964), pp. 14-20; Vol. XIX, No. 10 (October 1964), pp. 6-13; Vol. XIX, No. 11 (November 1964), pp. 16-21.

661.——. *Poles in the United States of America*. The Baltic Pocket Library. Gdynia, Poland: The Baltic Institute, 1937. 121-item bibliography, pp. 56-64.

Comprehensive description of the immigration, location, religion, education, and organizations of Poles in the U.S. until the 1930's.

662. ——. "The Story of the American Japanese." *The Study of Current English*. Part I: Vol. XIX, No. 4 (April 1964), pp. 6-13; Part II: Vol. XIX, No. 5 (May 1964), pp. 6-11.

663. Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, or Royal Commission on Education. See Canada.

664. Rubel, Arthur J. *Across the Tracks, Mexican-Americans in a Texas City*. Austin and London: University of Texas Press, for the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health, 1966. 166 pp. Bibliography, pp. 247-254.

Provides an account of the social life of Mexican Americans in South Texas; considers those characteristics of their social and belief systems which impede full utilization of available professional health services; and develops an explanation for the prominence of anxiety and disaffection in Mexiquito, the Mexican American section of the town.

*665. Rubin, Joan. *National Bilingualism in Paraguay*. Janua Linguarum, series practica, No. 60. The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1968. 135 pp. Bibliography, pp. 131-135.

A sociolinguistic study of a bilingual nation which focuses on the historical background as well as on the political and cultural factors which direct and enhance Spanish-Guaraní bilingualism: attitudes, stability, usage, acquisition, and proficiency.

666. Ruiz, Ramón Eduardo. "Mexico: The Struggle for a National Language." *Social Research*, Vol. XXV, No. 3 (Autumn 1958), pp. 346-360.

Analyzes the problems caused by the language barrier which for four centuries has plagued Mexico, where roughly 15 percent of the population speaks exclusively one of the fifty or more Indian languages.

667. Rūke-Dravina, Velta. *Mehrsprachigkeit im Vorschulalter*. Travaux de l'Institut de Phonétique de Lund, No. 5. Lund, Sweden: Gleerup, 1967. 104 pp.

A study of infant and pre-school bilingualism based on a careful review of the literature in more than a hundred sources, supplemented by personal observations of the author's own bilingual (Latvian-Swedish) child. This monograph deals in particular with such questions as how long it takes a child to learn a second language, how many languages he can master, the age at which he can distinguish between two language systems, the process of acquisition, and contacts between children speaking different languages.

668. Rumilly, Robert. *Histoire des Franco-Américains*. Montreal, Canada: Publié sous les auspices de l'Union Saint-Jean-Baptiste d'Amérique, 1958. 552 pp.

Complete and up-to-date history of the Franco-Americans.

669. Saer, D. J., F. Smith and John Hughes. *The Bilingual Problem*. Aberystwyth, Wales: The University College of Wales, 1924. 112 pp.

An examination of the educational, psychological, and sociological results of bilingualism as seen in Wales.

670. Salisbury, Lee H. "Communication for Survival–the COPAN Program." Paper prepared for the Intercultural Communication Conference sponsored by the National Society for the Study of Communication at the Speech Association of America Convention, Los Angeles, California, December 30, 1967. Mimeographed. 13 pp.

On the rationale behind the College Orientation Program for Alaska Natives, with good information on culture traits and educational problems.

671. ____ . "Cross Cultural Communication and Dramatic Ritual." In Lee Thayer, ed., *Communication: Concepts and Perspectives*, Washington, D. C.: Spartan-Macmillan, 1967, pp. 77-95.

Describes the cultural confrontation taking place in Alaska. A thorough and interesting analysis of problems in the classroom as they relate to cultural differences.

672. ____. "The Speech Education of the Alaskan Indian Student as Viewed by the Speech Educator." *Journal of American Indian Education,* Vol. IV, No. 3 (May 1965), pp. 1-7

Suggests, among other things, that the language problem may be a "symptom" rather than the cause of scholastic failure.

673. ____. "Teaching English to Alaska Natives." *Journal of American Indian Education*, Vol. VI, No. 2 (January 1967), pp. 1-13.

Reports that Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts make up 20 percent of the freshman class at the University of Alaska, but predicts that "over 50 percent of them are likely to drop out" before the end of the year, and "less than 2 percent" will eventually graduate. A major reason, he suspects, is their failure to develop what he calls "a conceptual knowledge of English."

674. Sallet, R. "Russlanddeutsche Siedlungen in den Vereinigten Staaten." *Jahrbuch, Deutsch-Amerikanische historische Gesellschaft*, Vol. III (1931), pp. 5-126.

675. Saloutos, Theodore. *The Greeks in the United States*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1964. 445 pp. Bibliography, pp. 389-400.

676. ____. *They Remember America: The Story of the Repatriated Greek-Americans*. Berkeley and Los Angeles, California: University of California Press, 1956. Annotated bibliography, pp. 143-149.

677. Samora, Julian. "The Educational Status of a Minority." *Theory Into Practice*, Vol. II, No. 3 (June 1963), pp. 144-150.

A discussion of the educational situation of the Spanish-speaking population in the Southwest.

678. ____. *La Raza: Forgotten Americans*. South Bend, Indiana: University of Notre Dame, 1966.

Contains a series of essays and articles directed toward achieving an understanding of contemporary Mexican American affairs.

679. Sánchez, George I. *Concerning Segregation of Spanish-Speaking Children in the Public Schools*. Inter-American Education Occasional Papers, No. 9. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas Press, 1951. 75 pp.

A pamphlet which sets forth in summary form the various aspects of the segregation of Spanish-speaking children: legally, educationally, and morally.

680. ——. "The Crux of the Dual Language Handicap." *New Mexico School Review*, Vol. XXXVIII, (March 1954), pp. 13-15.

Fallacies about bilingualism are analyzed. The basic handicap is lack of skill in any language.

681. ——. *Forgotten People: A Study of New Mexicans.* Albuquerque, New Mexico: C. Horn, 1967. First edition: Albuquerque, New Mexico: The University of New Mexico Press, 1940. 98 pp.

A study of New Mexico's people and their background, emphasizing three groups: the Indians, the 270,000 descendants of original Spanish settlers, and the Anglos; with special treatment of the problems of land and of education.

682. ——, and Howard Putnam. *Materials Relating to the Education of Spanish-Speaking People in the United States: An Annotated Bibliography*. Latin-American Studies, Vol. XVII. Austin, Texas: The Institute of Latin American Studies, The University of Texas, 1959. 76 pp. 882-item bibliography.

A comprehensive list of books, articles, monographs, bulletins, courses of study, bibliographies, and unpublished theses and dissertations having a bearing on the topic.

683. Saporta, Sol, ed., with the assistance of Jarvis R. Bastian. *Psycholinguistics: A Book of Readings*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961. 551 pp. References.

A collection of articles on the nature and function of language, approaches to the study of language, speech perception, the sequential organization and semantic aspects of linguistic events, and the relation of linguistic processes to perception and cognition.

684. Saussure, Ferdinand de, in collaboration with Albert Reidlinger. *Cours de linguistique générale.* Edited by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye. Paris: Payot, 1916. 331 pp. Translated by Wade Baskin under the title *Course in General Linguistics*, New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. 240 pp.

Gives insight into various technical aspects of linguistics: principles of phonology; graphic representation of language; synchronic, diachronic, geographical, and retrospective linguistics; among others.

685. Savard, Jean-Guy. "A Proposed System for Classifying Language Tests." *Language Learning*, Special Issue No. 3 (August 1968), pp. 167-174.

Describes four stages needed in the development of an open classification system.

686. ——. "La valence lexicale." *Les Sciences de l'Education Pour l'Ere Nouvelle*, Nos. 3-4 (July-December 1968), pp. 124-134.

Factors to be taken into account in selecting second-language vocabulary.

687. Schenker, Alexander M. *Beginning Polish I and II*. Yale Linguistic Series. New Haven and London, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1966. Reviewed in *Slavic and East European Journal*, Vol. XII, No. 2 (Summer 1968), pp. 222-227.

An intensive one-year course. Vol. I contains classroom or self-instruction text; Vol. II has drills for the lessons in Vol. I.

688. Schermerhorn, Richard A. *These Our People: Minorities in American Culture*. Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1949. Heath's Social Relations Series. 635 pp. Bibliographical notes, pp. 579-628.

Separate studies of Japanese, Spanish-speaking communities, Poles, Italians, Czechs and Slovaks, Hungarians, Yugoslavs, Jews, and Negroes.

689. Schiavo, Giovanni Ermenegildo. *Italian-American History*. New York: The Vigo Press, 1947-1949.

A series of fifteen books dealing with the history of the Italians in America from Columbus to present.

690. Schiff, Alvin Irwin. *The Jewish Day School in America*. New York: The Jewish Education Committee Press, January 1966. 294 pp. Bibliography, pp. 273-284.

Discusses the "growth," the "essence," the "impact," and the "challenge" of the Jewish day school in the United States.

691. Schreiber, William I. *Our Amish Neighbors*. Drawings by Sybil Gould. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1963. 227 pp. Bibliography, pp. 215-221.

Life of the Amish in America.

692. Schrieke, B. *Alien American: A Study of Race Relations*. New York: The Viking Press, 1936. 208 pp. Bibliography, pp. 197-203.

The Chinese and Japanese in California, the Mexicans, the Indians, the Filipinos, and especially the Negroes are gathered together in this unbaised account of race relations in America written by a foreigner from Java.

693. The Scottish Council for Research in Education. *Gaelic-Speaking Children in Highland Schools*. Publication No. XLVII. London: University of London Press, 1961. 95 pp.

694. Seaman, Paul David. "Modern Greek and American English in Contact: A Socio-Linguistic Investigation of Greek-American Bilingualism in Chicago." Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1965. 451 pp.

Besides the thorough linguistic analysis of the speech of Greek-Americans, a demographic analysis gives a brief history of Greek immigration to the United States, and outlines the geographical distribution of the half-million Americans of Greek descent.

695. Senior, Clarence. *The Puerto-Ricans: Strangers—Then Neighbors*. Foreword by Hubert H. Humphrey. Chicago, Illinois: Quadrangle Books, 1965. 128 pp. Bibliography, pp. 112-123.

696. Sexton, Patricia Cayo. *Spanish Harlem*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1965. 208 pp.

The woeful plight of the Puerto Ricans in New York.

697. Shedd, William B. "Italian Population of New York." *Atlantica*, September 1934.

698. Shelson, Edward S. "Some Specimens of a Canadian French Dialect Spoken in Maine." *Transactions of the Modern Language Association of America*, Vol. III (1887), pp. 210-218.

699. Shtarkman, M. "Yiddish Literature in the United States, 1942-1955." *General Jewish Encyclopedia*, Vol. Yidn V, pp. 130-144. New York: Jewish Encyclopedic Handbooks, 1957. (In Yiddish.)

700. Shuy, Roger W. "A Selective Bibliography on Social Dialects." Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, June 1968. 5 pp. (Published in the June 1968 issue of *The Linguistic Reporter* by CAL.)

Presents 46 annotated items to serve as a representative selection of linguistically oriented readings on the availability theory, design, research, and pedagogical applications in the area of social dialects.

701. Sibayan, Bonifacio P. "Language Planning Processes and the Language Policy Survey in the Philippines." Unpublished paper. Manila, Philippines, 1968. 73 pp. References, pp. 71-73.

Discussed the language situation and the (bilingual) educational system of the Philippines.

702. Simirenko, Alex. *Pilgrims, Colonists, and Frontiersmen: An Ethnic Community in Transition*. London: The Free Press of Glencoe, Collier-Macmillan Limited, 1964. 232 pp. Bibliography, pp. 213-224.

Examines the dynamics of social and cultural change that accompanied the formation and transformation of the Minneapolis, Minnesota, Russian community.

703. Simmons, Donald C. "Anti-Italian–American Riddles in New England." *Journal of American Folklore*, Vol. LXXIX, No. 313 (July-September 1966), pp. 475-478.

A collection of some 26 riddles illustrating the hostile attitude of some New Englanders toward Italian-Americans.

704. Singer, Harry. "Bilingualism and Elementary Education." *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XL, No. 8 (December 1956), pp. 444-458.

Analyzes the meaning of bilingualism, the language proficiency of bilinguals, their mental development, school achievement and emotional adjustment; then advocates the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary schools.

705. Sizemore, Mamie. "Project Head Start for Indian Students: A New Focus on the Teaching of English as a Second Language." *Sharing Ideas*, Vol. V, No. 6. Phoenix, Arizona: Division of Indian Education, 1333 W. Camelback Rd., 1965. 8 pp. 14 references.

Emphasizes the need for new, exciting methods of teaching the Indian child and describes the advantages of fostering and developing the native tongue.

706. Skramstad, Marie. "Norwegian Teachers' Conference." *Scandinavian Studies*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 3 (August 1966), pp. 276-279.

707. Smith, M. Estellie. "The Spanish-Speaking Population of Florida." In June Helm, ed., *Spanish-Speaking People in the United States. Proceedings of the 1968 Annual Spring Meeting of the American Ethnological Society*. Seattle and London: University of Washington Press, 1968, pp. 120-133. 4 references.

Focuses on the cultural characteristics of this language group.

708. Smith, T. Lynn, Homer L. Hitt. *The People of Louisiana*. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1952. 272 pp. Bibliography on Louisiana population studies, pp. 263-264.

A population study providing information and statistical data on the people of Louisiana, including the French-speaking communities.

709.____, and Vernon J. Parenton. "Acculturation Among the Louisiana French." *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. XLIV, No. 3 (November 1938), pp. 355-364.

Examines how and why the white elements in the "extremely heterogeneous" mass of European settlers have been absorbed in particular into the French-Acadian culture of South Louisiana.

710. Smith, William C. *Americans in the Making: The Natural History of the Assimilation of Immigrants*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1939.

Discusses the causes of immigration, the disorganization and reorganization of the immigrant, factors in and agencies of assimilation, immigrant heritages, second generation problems, indices of degree of assimilation, etc.

711. *Société Historique Franco-Américaine, Bulletin de la.* Old and new series. Manchester, New Hampshire: Imprimerie Ballard Frères.

Yearly bulletin on Franco-American life.

712. Soffietti, James P. "Bilingualism and Biculturalism." *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. XLVI, No. 4 (April 1955), pp. 222-227. 9 references.

Attempts to solve the problem of the definition of bilingualism and proposes that the research worker be able to distinguish between four basic culture-language types.

713. Solnit, Albert J. *Bilingual Education and Community Development.* Lima, Peru: Summer Institute of Linguistics and Ministry of Public Education, 1968.

714. Soriano, Jesse M., and James McClafferty. "Spanish-Speakers of the Midwest: They Are American Too." *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. II, No. 3 (March 1969), pp. 316-324.

A study of the educational problems of the Spanish-speaker of the Midwest, which are different from those of his Southwest counterpart. A description of the Title III, ESEA, Program in developing bilingual and bidialectal instructional materials in Ann Arbor, Michigan.

*715. Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers. *Reports: Bilingual Education: Research and Teaching*. Edited by Chester Christian. Fourth Annual Conference, November 10-11, 1967. El Paso, Texas, 1967. 88 pp. Bibliographies.

An account of contemporary bilingual education in the United States. The first report deals with areas of needed research and a description of bilingual programs in American schools abroad; the second analyzes the problem of reading content in a foreign language; the third is an account of bilingual programs operating in the Southwest or of the need of them.

716.____. *Reports: Bilingualism*. Edited by Charles Stubing. Third Annual Conference, November 4-5, 1966. El Paso, Texas, 1966. 62 pp. Bibliographies.

An important booklet containing useful information on the feasibility of bilingual schooling and reports on the programs, methods, and materials from the viewpoint of the administrator and counselor. Analyzes the problems of recruitment and preparation of bilingual teachers.

*717.____ . *Reports: Our Bilinguals: Social and Psychological Barriers; Linguistic and Pedagogical Barriers.* Edited by Chester Christian and Robert Lado. Second Annual Conference, November 13, 1965. El Paso, Texas, 1965.

718. Southwest Council on the Education of Spanish-Speaking People. *Proceedings. Fifth Annual Conference.* Los Angeles, California: George Pepperdine College, January 18-20, 1951. 101 pp.

Covers problem areas of Spanish-speaking groups including education, sociology, business opportunities, culture patterns, etc.

719. Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. *Bilingual Bylines.* Newsletter of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory Language-Development-Bilingual Education Program, Austin, Texas.

720.____ . *Evaluation of Migrant Education in Texas: Final Report.* A research report from the Texas Migrant Educational Development Center operated under a contract with the Texas Education Agency, Contract Period March 7–August 31, 1968. Austin: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, June 24, 1968. 163 pp.

Based on on-site observations at 90 schools throughout Texas, this report determines the educational opportunities available for children of migratory agricultural workers in Texas and evaluates the educational programs for migrants in Texas schools.

721.____ . *New Priorities: Educating Children of the Disadvantaged.* Austin, Texas: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, through the support and cooperation of the Texas Education Agency and the Louisiana State Department of Education, 1968. 26 pp.

The major objective of this study is to determine the nature and extent of efforts in colleges, universities, and public schools to help elementary teachers and prospective elementary teachers deal with the problems of educating disadvantaged children.

722. Spicer, Edward H. *Cycles of Conquest; The Impact of Spain, Mexico and the U.S. on the Indians of the Southwest, 1533-1960.* Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1962. 609 pp. Bibliographical notes, pp. 507-609.

An important work in terms of historical perspective, which includes chapters on linguistic unification and processes of acculturation.

723. Spoerl, Dorothy Tilden. "The Academic and Verbal Adjustment of College Age Bilingual Students." *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, Vol. LXIV, First Half (March 1944), pp. 139-157. 16 references.

Concludes that at college level there are no lasting effects due to bilingualism in childhood which are apparent in academic records, vocational choices, or English ability: if there was a handicap, it has been stabilized by the first year of college.

724.____ . "Bilinguality and Emotional Adjustment." *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 1 (January 1943), pp. 37-57.

It is suggested that, although at the college level bilingualism as such does not affect the students' expressive power, there is in his mental organization a residual effect of the emotional turmoil and mental effort which might have been present in the early days of his school career when English was not, for him, a facile medium of expression.

725. Stella Maris, Sister, C.S.S.J. "A Note on the Pronunciation of New England French." *The French Review*, Vol. XXXII, No. 4 (February 1959), pp. 363-366.
A technical study of the Franco-American dialect.

726. Stern, H. H. *Foreign Languages in Primary Education: The Teaching of Foreign or Second Languages to Younger Children*. Report on an international meeting of experts, April 9-14, 1962. Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963. 103 pp. Bibliography, pp. 97-103.
Reports of FLES experiments throughout the world, arguments for early second language practice, and recommendations for practice and research.

*727.____, ed. *Languages and the Young School Child*. With a Research Guide by John B. Carroll. Language and Language Learning Series. London: Oxford University Press, 1969. 270 pp. Bibliography, pp. 261-267.
A useful collection of some 17 articles on the teaching of foreign languages in the primary school. (See Bell, Paul W.)

728. Stubing, Charles, ed. *Reports: Bilingualism*. See Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers.

729. Stycos, J. Mayone. "The Spartan Greeks of Bridgetown: Community Cohesion." *Common Ground*, Vol. VIII, No. 3 (Spring 1948), pp. 24-34.

730.____. "The Spartan Greeks of Bridgetown: The Second Generation." *Common Ground*, Vol. VIII, No. 4 (Summer 1948), pp. 72-86.

731. Summer Institute of Linguistics. See Wares, Alan C., comp.

732. Swansen, H. F. "The Norwegian Quakers of Marshall County, Iowa." *Norwegian-American Studies and Records*, Vol. X (1938), pp. 127-134.

733. Szy, Tibor, ed. *Hungarians in America*. New York: Hungarian University Association, Inc., 1963. 606 pp.
Directory of outstanding people of Hungarian-American descent and of Hungarian-American organizations.

734. Tabouret-Keller, Andrée. "Problèmes psychopédagogiques du bilinguisme." *International Review of Education*, Vol. VI, No. 1 (1960), pp. 52-66.
Describes the Alsacian situation in France: at school the language of instruction is French whereas outside the school the Alsacian dialect is spoken.

735. Taillon, Léopold. *Diversité des langues et bilinguisme*. Third edition. Collection Bilinguisme. Montréal, Canada: Les Editions de l'Atelier, 1967. 166 pp. 37-item bibliography.
An informally written account of the status of bilingualism in the world, with emphasis on the Canadian situation, by an educator concerned particularly with the education of French Speakers.

736. Tan, G. L. "Bilingual Education and its Inherent Problems, With Special Reference to Burma." Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, 1947.

737. Teel, D. "Preventing Prejudice Against Spanish-Speaking Children." *Educational Leadership*, Vol. XII (November 1954), pp. 94-98.

Suggests a school program to eliminate prejudice against Spanish-speaking people, with emphasis on basic principles of curriculum making.

738. Temple University. The NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth. *Position Papers from Language Education for the Disadvantaged*. Report/Three, June 1968. Published by The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1126 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036. 16 pp. Contents:

Allen, Harold B. "What English Teachers Should Know About Their Language," pp. 2-4.
Labov, William. "The Non-Standard Vernacular of the Negro Community: Some Practical Suggestions," pp. 4-7.
Gleason, H. A., Jr. "The Grammars of English," pp. 7-11.
Lefevre, Carl A. "Values in the Teaching of English and the Language Arts," pp. 11-16.

739. Texas Conference for the Mexican-Americans. See Estes, Dwain M., and David W. Darling, eds.

740. Texas Education Agency. Regional Educational Agencies Project in International Education. *Addresses and Reports Presented at the Conference on Development of Bilingualism in Children in Varying Linguistic and Cultural Heritages*. W. R. Goodson, ed. Austin, Texas: Texas Education Agency, January 31–February 3, 1967. 123 pp. 220-item bibliography, pp. 111-123.

Includes reports on various Texas cities, Guatemala, New Mexico, Germany, etc. With addresses and statements by several experts in this field.

741.____. *Preschool Instructional Program for Non-English Speaking Children*. Bulletin No. 642. Austin, Texas, March 1964. 132 pp. Bibliography, pp. 125-132.

742.____. Division of Research. "Report of Pupils in Texas Public Schools Having Spanish Surnames, 1955-56." Austin, Texas, August 1957.

743. Thériault, George F. "The Franco-Americans in Nashua, New Hampshire: An Experiment in Survival." Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1951.

744.____. "The Franco-Americans of New England." In Mason Wade, ed., *Canadian Dualism: Studies of French-English Relations/La dualité canadienne: essais sur les relations entre Canadiens français et Canadiens anglais*, pp. 392-411. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press; Quebec, Canada: Presses Universitaires Laval, 1960.

Describes how Franco-Americans have managed to keep their cultural heritage alive.

745. Thériot, Maria del Norte. "French in the Public Elementary Schools of Louisiana." *The French Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 4 (February 1940), pp. 344-346.

A description of the steps undertaken by a group of French teachers to start FLES programs in the public schools of Louisiana.

746. Therriault, Sister Mary Carmel, S.M. *La littérature française de Nouvelle-Angleterre*. Brunswick, Maine: Bowdoin College Bureau for Research in Municipal Government, 1961.

Discusses the contribution of Franco-Americans to French literature and culture.

747. Thompson, Frank V. *Schooling of the Immigrant*. New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1920. 408 pp.

748. Thompson, Hildegard, et al. *Education for Cross-Cultural Enrichment*. Lawrence, Kansas: Haskell Institute, 1964.

Reprints of selected articles which appeared in *Indian Education* for the years 1952-1964. (See annotation for Beatty, *Education for Action*).

749. Thompson, Kenneth. "Recent Greek Emigration." *Geographical Review*, Vol. LVII, No. 4 (October 1967), pp. 560-562.

750. Thonis, Eleanor. "Bilingual Education for Mexican-American Children: A Report of an Experiment Conducted in the Marysville Joint Unified School District, Marysville, California, October 1966-June 1967." Prepared for the Mexican-American Education Project of the California State Department of Education. Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1967.

751. Tiffany, Warren I. *Education in Northwest Alaska*. Revised Edition. Juneau, Alaska: Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1966. 71 pp. Bibliography, pp. 36-71.

This account deals not only with this specific geographic section, but reflects the economic, political, social as well as educational development of the whole state from the era of Russian occupation to the period of young statehood.

*752. Tireman, Lloyd S. *Teaching Spanish-Speaking Children*. Albuquerque, New Mexico: The University of New Mexico Press, 1951. 252 pp. Bibliographical footnotes.

A survey of bilingualism in the world studied separately in different countries and in general as a social phenomenon. Conclusions of studies applied to design a pattern for the education of Spanish-speaking children.

753. Tisch, Joseph LeSage. *French in Louisiana: A Study of the Historical Development of the French Language of Louisiana*. New Orleans, Louisiana: A. F. Laborde and Sons, 1959. 68 pp. Bibliography, pp. 66-68.

A study of the evolution of the Acadian-French, Creole-French, and *patois nègre* French dialects of Louisiana, with an analysis of the factors leading toward a unified "Louisiana French" in the future. A sampler of Louisiana French is provided.

754. Tits, Désiré. *Le mécanisme de l'acquisition d'une langue se substituant à la langue maternelle chez une enfant espagnole âgee de six ans*. Brussels, Belgium, 1948. 102 pp.

755. Tomanio, Antonio, J., and Lucille B. LaMacchia. *The Italian-American Community in Bridgeport*. University of Bridgeport Area Studies, Student Monograph No. 5. Bridgeport, Connecticut: University of Bridgeport, Sociology Department, 1953. 44 pp.

Studies the social institutions of Italian Americans in Bridgeport, their acculturation to the community, and the extent to which they have preserved elements of their original Italian culture.

756. Toussaint, N. *Bilinguisme et éducation.* Preface by Tobie Jonckheere. Brussels, Belgium: Maurice Lamertin, 1935. 200 pp. Long annotated bibliography.

A thorough study, emphasizing the irreparable harm done to a child in instructing him in any language other than his vernacular. Detailed analysis of bilingualism in the schools of most European countries individually.

757. Treudley, Mary Bosworth. "Formal Organization and the Americanization Process, With Special Reference to the Greeks of Boston." *American Sociological Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 1 (February 1949), pp. 44-53.

*758. Treviño, Bertha Alicia Gámez. "An Analysis of the Effectiveness of a Bilingual Program in the Teaching of Mathematics in the Primary Grades." Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Texas, 1968. 116 pp. Bibliography, pp. 106-116.

759. Truesdell, Leon E. *The Canadian Born in the United States: An Analysis of the Statistics of the Canadian Element in the Population of the United States, 1850 to 1930.* New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press; Toronto, Canada: The Ryerson Press, for the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Economics and History, 1943. 263 pp.

A thorough study. Especially relevant is Chapter XI: "Ability to Speak English Among French-Canadians in the United States."

760. Turano, Anthony M. "The Speech of Little Italy." *American Mercury*, Vol. XXVI, No. 103 (July 1932), pp. 356-359.

A brief description of the "peculiar patois" spoken by Italian communities in the United States.

761. Ulibarrí, Horacio. *Educational Needs of the Mexican-American.* Prepared for the National Conference on Educational Opportunities for Mexican-Americans, April 25-26, 1968, Austin, Texas. Las Cruces, New Mexico: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, March 1968. 20 pp. 32 references.

Examines the educational needs of the Mexican American in relation to occupational success, citizenship participation, and personality factors.

762.____. *Interpretive Studies on Bilingual Education.* Final Report, Project No. 80609, Grant No. HEW-OEC-O-080-609-4531 (010). U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Research. Albuquerque, New Mexico: University of New Mexico, College of Education, March 1969. 154 pp.

Following an analysis of literature on bilingual education, the author has prepared a summary of research and drawn implications for education and for research. Contains an annotated bibliography, a selected bibliography, and a list of projects and on-going programs.

763.____. "Social and Attitudinal Characteristics of Migrant and Ex-Migrant Workers–New Mexico, Colorado, Arizona, and Texas." *ERIC.* Ed. 011 215, 1964.

A study of the feelings of the migrant worker or the bilingual person who has not acquired a great deal of formal education. Was conducted with migrant workers in regard to family, health, economics, government, children, religion, and recreation.

*764. United Kingdom. National Commission for UNESCO, Department of Education and Science. *Bilingualism in Education.* Report on an International Seminar, Aberystwyth, Wales, 20 August-2 September 1960. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1965. 234 pp. 267-item bibliography.

Contains valuable papers by well-known specialists throughout the world illustrating the linguistic, social, psychological, cultural, historical, and above all educational aspects of bilingualism.

*765.———. Ministry of Education, Central Advisory Council for Education (Wales). *The Place of Welsh and English in the Schools of Wales*. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1953. 112 pp. Bibliography on bilingualism, pp. 107-110.

A comprehensive study of bilingualism in Wales taking most previous studies into consideration, an examination of the desirability of bilingual schooling, and a discussion on what policies to follow.

766. United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. *African Languages and English in Education*. UNESCO Educational Studies and Documents, No. 2. Paris, 1953. 91 pp.

A report of a meeting held at Jos, Nigeria; includes discussions of the place of African languages and English both in and out of school, problems in the use of African languages in education, and the teaching of English as a second language in African territories.

*767.———. *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education*. Monographs on Fundamental Education, VIII. Paris: UNESCO, 1953.

Report of 12 international experts describing the status of education in bilingual areas in all parts of the world, and strongly recommends use of learner's mother tongue in beginning formal education.

768. United States Bureau of the Census. See United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

769. United States Bureau of Indian Affairs. See United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs.

770. United States Congress. House of Representatives. *Hearings Before Subcommittee No. 1 of the Committee on the Judiciary. 89th Congress. First Session on H.R. 2580 To Amend the Immigration and Nationality Act and For Other Purposes*. Serial No. 7. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

Papers, presentations, arguments for and against, statistics, and statements concerning the new immigration legislation are presented.

*771.———. Senate. Bilingual Education. Hearings Before the Special Subcommittee on Bilingual Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, United States Senate, Ninetieth Congress, First Session, on S. 428. Two parts. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

"A bill to amend the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 in order to provide assistance to local education agencies in establishing bilingual American education programs, and to provide certain other assistance to promote such programs." An extremely important collection of data, information, materials, discussions, and statements by scholars, responsible persons, and experts in the field.

*772.____. *Bilingual Education Programs.* Hearings Before the General Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, Ninetieth Congress, First Session on H.R. 9840 and H.R. 10224. Hearings Held in Washington D.C., June 28 and 29, 1967. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

Bills to amend the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 in order to assist bilingual education programs.

*773.____. Committee on Labor and Public Welare. *Committee Print, Elementary and Secondary Education Act Amendments of 1967, With Background Materials and Tables.* Prepared for the Subcommittee on Education. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, March 1968.

774.____. *Cuban Refugee Problem.* Hearings before the Subcommittee to Investigate Problems Connected with Refugees and Escapees of the Committee on the Judiciary, 89th Congress, Second Session, Part 1: Washington, D.C., March 23, 24, 29, and 30, 1966; Part 2: New York, New York, April 13, 1966; Part 3: Newark, New Jersey, April 15, 1966. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966. 304 pp.

Part 1 presents testimony and statistics dealing with the resettlement problem; the memorandum of understanding between Cuba and the U.S.; conditions in Cuba; effectiveness of the refugee program; issues reflected in the mail to Congress; and the inability of Cubans to practice their profession or skill. Part 2 focuses on the New York situation and Part 3 on the New Jersey situation (Part 3 is entitled *Cuban Refugee Program.*)

775.____. *Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Immigration and Naturalization of the Committee on the Judiciary. 89th Congress. First Session on S. 500 to Amend the Immigration and Naturalization Act. Part I.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

Papers, presentations, arguments for and against, statistics, and statements concerning the new immigration legislation are presented.

776.____. "Quality Education for American Indians, A Report on Organizational Location." Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, May 1967. 11 pp.

Gives details concerning the responsibility for Indian education within the federal government. Contains a description of past and present governmental educational policies with pertinent data as to school enrollment, legislation, financing, etc. The report also makes a series of recommendations regarding research, planning, and programs.

777. United States Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *Census of Population, 1960: Subject Reports, Persons of Spanish Surname.* Final Report PC(2)1B. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1963.

778.____. *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1957.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1960.

779.____. *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1957; Continuation to 1962 and Revisions.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

780. ———. *Mother Tongue of the Foreign-Born: Selected Characteristics of Foreign-Born by Language Spoken Before Coming to U.S.* Final Report PC(2)1E, 1960. 26 pp.

A basic, official document frequently used throughout the monograph.

781. United States Department of the Interior. Bureau of Indian Affairs. *English for American Indians.* Prepared by the Center for Applied Linguistics under contract with the B.I.A. Washington, D.C., first issue Fall 1968.

A newsletter intended for teachers and other educators who are involved with the teaching of English in the educational system of the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

782. ———. Division of Education. *Fiscal Year 1968, Statistics Concerning Indian Education.* Lawrence, Kansas: Haskell Institute, 1968. 40 pp.

783. ———. *Indians of the Eastern Seaboard*, 1967, 28 pp.; *Indians of the Great Lakes Area*, revised edition, 1968, 24 pp.; *Indians of the Gulf Coast States*, 1968, 20 pp.; *Indians of the Lower Plateau*, 1968, 24 pp. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

784. ———. *Report to the Senate Appropriations Committee on the Navajo Bordertown Dormitory Program by the Commissioner of Indian Affairs.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965. 72 pp.

785. United States Department of Justice. Immigration and Naturalization Service. *Annual Report of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1967.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

786. United States Department of State. Inter-Agency Committee on Mexican American Affairs. *The Mexican American: A New Focus on Opportunity.* Testimony presented at the Cabinet Committee Hearings on Mexican American Affairs, El Paso, Texas, October 26-28, 1967. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968. 253 pp.

Over fifty men and women presented statements on agriculture; labor; health, education, and welfare; the war on poverty and the general improvement in the economic and social condition of the Mexican American. Bilingual education was given support by several persons.

787. United States Federal Writers' Project, Work Progress Administration of the City of New York. *The Italians of New York: A Survey.* With 24 plates by the WPA Federal Art Project of the City of New York. Sponsored by the Guilds' Committee for Federal Writers' Publications, Inc. The American Guides Series. New York: Random House, 1938. 241 pp. Bibliography, pp. 227-230.

A study of the greatest concentration of Italians in the United States: their religious, recreational, social, and cultural life, problems of adjustment and integration, share in building and developing New York, creative work and intellectual influence, role in business and industry, etc.

788. United States House of Representatives. See United States Congress. House of Representatives.

789. United States Senate. See United States Congress. Senate.

790. University College of Wales. *Llyfryddiaeth. Dwyietheg: Bilingualism: A Bibliography With Special Reference to Wales.* Aberystwyth, England: University College of Wales,

Faculty of Education, 1960. Pamphlet No. 7. 55 pp.

A research guide for bilingualism throughout the world. 784 items listed in alphabetical order.

791. University of Southwestern Louisiana. "Disadvantaged Youth: Reading and Language Arts for Elementary Teachers and Supervisors of French-English Speaking Children." Proposal to the U.S. Office of Education for an Institute for Advanced Study. Lafayette, Louisiana: College of Education, University of Southwestern Louisiana, 1967.

792.____ . "The Role of Education and Government in the Regional Preservation of French: A Colloquy." Lafayette, Louisiana, December 4, 1968. 28 pp.

A collection of papers discussing the problem of French language maintenance in Louisiana.

793. Upham, W. Kennedy, and David E. Wright. "Poverty Among Spanish Americans in Texas: Low-Income Families in a Minority Group." Departmental Information Report No. 66-2. College Station, Texas: Department of Agricultural Economies and Sociology, Texas A&M University, Texas Agricultural Experiment Station, April 1967. 55 pp. Bibliography, pp. 39-41.

Poverty is abnormally prevalent among Spanish American families, especially in Texas as compared with Anglo-white families. Also, a large number of Mexican American families fall in the extreme poverty classification. Moreover, given the size of Spanish American families, the number of *persons* in need is greater than the family unit figures would indicate.

794. Valdman, Albert, ed. *Trends in Language Teaching*. Foreword by Alfred S. Hayes. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966. 298 pp. Bibliographies.

Articles reporting the search for progress in foreign language education during the years since the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958.

795. Valette, Rebecca M. "Some Reflections on Second-Language Learning in Young Children." *Language Learning*, Vol. XIV, Nos. 3-4 (1964), pp. 91-98.

796. Valls Anglés, Vicente. See Oficina Internacional de Educación.

797. Vander Zanden, James W. *American Minority Relations: The Sociology of Race and Ethnic Groups*. Second edition. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966. 550 pp. Bibliography, pp. 515-538.

A report of various theories dealing with the sources of prejudice and discrimination. Special treatment is reserved for Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Hispanos, Mexican Americans, Chinese, Japanese, Jews, and Amish.

798. Vanstone, James W. *Point Hope: An Eskimo Village in Transition*. Edited by Viola E. Garfield, The American Ethnological Society. Seattle, Washington: The University of Washington Press, 1962. 177 pp. Bibliography, pp. 169-172.

Concerned with the functioning of a contemporary Eskimo community of Western Alaska. Historical materials are utilized to provide a background but the study is functional and acculturational rather than historical.

799. Vaughan, Herbert H. "Italian and Its Dialects as Spoken in the United States." *American Speech,* Vol. I, No. 8 (May 1926), pp. 431-435.

800. Vecoli, R. J. "Contadini in Chicago: A Critique of the Uprooted." *Journal of American History*, Vol. LI (December 1964), pp. 404-417.

801. Velikonja, Joseph. "The Italian-Born in the United States, 1950." *Association of American Geographers, Annals*, Vol. LI, No. 4 (December 1961), p. 426. Paper presented at the 57th annual meeting of the American Association of Geographers, East Lansing, Michigan, August 28–September 1, 1961.

A study of the distribution of Italians in the U.S.

802._____ . *Italians in the U.S.: Bibliography*. Department of Geography Occasional Papers No. 1. Carbondale, Illinois: Southern Illinois University, 1963. 90 pp. 793 references.

The most extensive and up-to-date classified bibliography on Italian-Americans. Lists items related to all aspects of their life in the U.S. Of special relevance is Part A7, "Education and Language, Teaching of Language."

803. Verdoort, Albert. *Zweisprachige Nachbarn*. Vienna, Austria: Braumüller, 1968. 355 pp.

804. Verrette, Adrien. "La mutualité chez les Franco-Américains." *Le Canada Français,* Vol. XXVIII (January 1941), pp. 477-496.

805. Viatte, Auguste. "Les franco-américains de Nouvelle-Angleterre." *Renaissance*, Vol. II-III (1944-1945), pp. 322-335.

A thorough description of the Franco-American ethnic group.

806. Viereck, Louis. "German Instruction in American Schools." In *Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1900-1901*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1902, pp. 531-708. (German edition: *Zwei Jahrhunderte der Unterricht in den Vereinigten Staaten*, Braunschweig, Vieweg, 1903.

807. Viereck, Wolfgang. "German Dialects Spoken in the United States and Canada: A Bibliography." *Orbis*, Vol. XVI (1967), pp. 549-568.

*808. Vildomec̍, Věroboj. *Multilingualism*. Leyden, The Netherlands: A. W. Sythoff, 1963. 262 pp. Bibliography, pp. 242-256.

A study of the psychological and linguistic aspects of multilingualism, with pertinent remarks on its influence on the mother tongue, and on the mutual interference of languages. Analysis of the relation between speech and thought. Conclusions based on surveys and experiments.

809. "The Village People." Anchorage, Alaska: Anchorage Daily News, 1966. 53 pp.

Offers a panorama of the life of the present day Alaskan native with information on schooling, B.I.A. policies and practices, etc.

810. Vogelin, C. F., and F. M. "Indo-European Fascicle One." *Anthropological Linguistics*, Vol. VII, No. 8 (November 1965), pp. 1-294.

Classification of Indo-European languages and demographic data on number of speakers.

811.——. "Languages of the World: Native America Fascicle One." *Anthropological Linguistics*, Vol. VI, No. 6 (June 1964), pp. 1-149.

Classification of American Indian languages and various estimates of number and location of speakers.

812.——, and Noel W. Schutz, Jr. "The Language Situation in Arizona as Part of the Southwest Culture Area." In Dell H. Hymes and William E. Bittle, eds., *Studies in Southwestern Ethnolinguistics: Meaning and History in the Languages of the American Southwest*. The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1967, pp. 403-451.

A well researched study which includes a section on bilingualism among the Indian groups in the Southwest.

813. Vogt, Evon Z., and Clyde Kluckhohn. *Navajo Means People*. Photos by Leonard McCombe. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1951. 159 pp.

814. Vygotsky, L. S. *Thought and Language*. Edited and translated from Russian by Eugenia Hanfmann and Gertrude Vakar. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M.I.T. Press; New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962. 168 pp. Bibliography, pp. 157-159.

A study of the interrelation of thought and language with a critical analysis of the two most influential theories about the development of language and thinking.

815. Wagley, Charles, and Marvin Harris. *Minorities in the New World: Six Case Studies*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1958. 320 pp. Bibliography, pp. 297-304.

Based in part upon studies prepared for UNESCO by social scientists of five different countries. Studies minorities in the Americas: the American Indian (Brazil, Mexico); the Negro in the Americas (Martinique, United States), and European immigrants in U.S. (French Canadians, Jews).

816. Walker, D. B. *Politics and Ethnocentrism: The Case of the Franco-Americans*. Brunswick, Maine: Bowdoin College Bureau for Research in Municipal Government, 1961. 48 pp.

Discusses the political aspect of Franco-American life.

817. Walker, Willard. "An Experiment in Programmed Cross Cultural Education: The Import of the Cherokee Primer for the Cherokee Community and for the Behavioral Sciences." Unpublished paper presented at Tahlequah, Oklahoma, March 1965, in connection with the Carnegie Corporation Cross-Cultural Education Project of the University of Chicago. Mimeographed. 10 pp.

Presents the rationale for the design of the Cherokee primer by noting such variables as the factors influencing motivation, the presentation of the information to be learned, the native learning and teaching patterns, etc.

818. Walsh, Donald D. "Bilingualism and Bilingual Education: A Guest Editorial." *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. II, No. 3 (March 1969), pp. 298-303.

A foreign language teacher advocates progressive bilingual education in order to have "brighter, more tolerant" children, who would be "more preceptive about their own culture and the other than are otherwise comparable monolinguals."

819.——, ed. *A Handbook for Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese*. Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1969.

820.——. *What's What: A List of Useful Terms for the Teacher of Modern Languages*. Third edition. New York: Modern Language Association, 1965. 34 pp. Bibliography, pp. 7-9.

Explanatory information on about 300 items dealing with fields whose special lexicon perplexes the language teacher: culture, linguistics, programmed instruction, the language laboratory, psychometry, psycholinguistics, etc.

821. Wapple, Robert J., and Alvin A. Fodor. "Bilingual Education for Mexican-American Children: An Experiment." Marysville, California: Marysville Joint Unified School District, September 30, 1967.

822. Wares, Alan C., comp. *Bibliography of the Summer Institute of Linguistics: 1935-1968.* Santa Ana, California: Summer Institute of Linguistics, 1968. 124 pp.

Contains 2514 entries dealing with close to 300 languages (not including separate dialects) and representing the work of more than 670 different authors. Basically three types of output: general works, articles and monographs on specific languages, and educational materials written in a specific language.

823. Warner, W. Lloyd, and Leo Srole. *The Social Systems of American Ethnic Groups*. Yankee City series, Vol. III. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1945. 318 pp.

A study of ethnic groups, including the Irish, French-Canadians, Jews, Armenians, and Poles. See especially Chapter VII, pp. 220-253, "Language and the School: (1) Generation Shift in Language Usage; (2) The Catholic Parochial Schools; (3) The Hebrew School; and (4) The Greek Schools."

824. Warriner, Helen P. *The Effectiveness of the Use of Foreign Languages in Teaching Academic Subjects: A Research Contribution to Education Planning*. Richmond, Virginia: Division of Educational Research, State Department of Education, September 1968. 40 pp.

Report of an experiment in which a language foreign to the students was used as a medium of instruction.

825. Webster, D. H. "On Cross-Cultural Communication." Fairbanks, Alaska: Summer Institute of Linguistics, n.d. Mimeographed. 11 pp.

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INDEX TO BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Having arranged the bibliography alphabetically by author and numbered the items, we have appended a subject index, which, though incomplete, we hope will be helpful.

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Volume Two

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Volume TWO

Appendices

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APPENDIX A

BILINGUAL EDUCATION ACT

Title VII, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965,
As Amended in 1967
Public Law 90–247, January 2, 1968

SHORT TITLE

Sec. 701. This title may be cited as the "Bilingual Education Act."

DECLARATION OF POLICY

Sec. 702. In recognition of the special educational needs of the large numbers of children of limited English-speaking ability in the United States, Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local educational agencies to develop and carry out new and imaginative elementary and secondary school programs designed to meet these special educational needs. For the purposes of this title, "children of limited English-speaking ability" means children who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English.

(20 U.S.C. 880b) Enacted Jan. 2, 1968, P.L. 90-247, Title VII, sec. 702, 81 Stat. 816.

AUTHORIZATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF FUNDS

Sec. 703. (a) For the purposes of making grants under this title, there is authorized to be appropriated the sum of $15,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1968, $30,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1969, and $40,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1970.

(b)In determining distribution of funds under this title, the Commissioner shall give highest priority to States and areas within States having the greatest need for programs pursuant to this title. Such priorities shall take into consideration the number of children of limited English-speaking ability between the ages of three and eighteen in each State.

(20 U.S.C. 800b-1) Enacted Jan. 2, 1968, P.L. 90-247, Title VII, sec. 702, 81 Stat. 816.

USE OF FEDERAL FUNDS

Sec. 704. Grants under this title may be used, in accordance with applications approved under section 705, for–

(a)planning for and taking other steps leading to the development of programs designed to meet the special educational needs of children of limited English-speaking ability in schools having a high concentration of such children from families (A) with incomes below $3,000 per year, or (B) receiving payments under a program of aid to families with dependent children under a State plan approved under title IV of the Social Security Act, including research projects, pilot projects designed to test the effectiveness of plans so developed, and the development and dissemination of special instructional materials for use in bilingual education programs; and

(b) providing preservice training designed to prepare persons to participate in bilingual education programs as teachers, teacher-aides, or other ancillary education personnel such as counselors, and inservice training and development programs designed to enable such persons to continue to improve their qualifications while participating in such programs; and

(c) the establishment, maintenance, and operation of programs, including acquisition of necessary teaching materials and equipment, designed to meet the special educational needs of children of limited English-speaking ability in schools having a high concentration of such children from families (A) with incomes below $3,000 per year, or (B) receiving payments under a program of aid to families with dependent children under a State plan approved under title IV of the Social Security Act, through activities such as–

(1) bilingual education programs;

(2) programs designed to impart to students a knowledge of the history and culture associated with their languages;

(3) efforts to establish closer cooperation between the school and the home;

(4) early childhood educational programs related to the purposes of this title and designed to improve the potential for profitable learning activities by children;

(5) adult education programs related to the purposes of this title, particularly for parents of children participating in bilingual programs;

(6) programs designed for dropouts or potential dropouts having need of bilingual programs;

(7) programs conducted by accredited trade, vocational, or technical schools; and

(8) other activities which meet the purposes of this title.

(20 U.S.C. 880b) Enacted Jan. 2, 1968, P.L. 90-147, Title VII, sec. 702, 81 Stat. 816.

APPLICATIONS FOR GRANTS AND CONDITIONS FOR APPROVAL

Sec. 705. (a) A grant under this title may be made to a local educational agency or agencies, or to an institution of higher education applying jointly with a local educational agency, upon application to the Commissioner at such time or times, in such manner and containing or accompanied by such information as the Commissioner deems necessary. Such application shall–

(1) provide that the activities and services for which assistance under this title is sought will be administered by or under the supervision of the applicant;

(2) set forth a program for carrying out the purpose set forth in section 704 and provided for such methods of administration as are necessary for the proper and efficient operation of the program;

(3) set forth a program of such size, scope, and design as will make a substantial step toward achieving the purpose of this title;

(4) set forth policies and procedures which assure that Federal funds made available under this title for any fiscal year will be so used as to supplement and, to the extent practicable, increase the level of funds (including funds made available under title I of this Act) that would, in the absence of such Federal funds, be made available by the applicant for the purposes described in section 704, and in no case supplant such funds;

(5) provide for such fiscal control and fund accounting procedures as may be necessary to assure proper disbursement of and accounting for Federal funds paid to the applicant under this title;

(6) provide for making an annual report and such other reports, in such form and containing such information, as the Commissioner may reasonably require to carry out his functions under this title and to determine the extent to which funds provided under this title have been effective in improving the educational opportunities of persons in the area served and for keeping such records and for affording such access thereto as the Commissioner may find necessary to assure the correctness and verification of such reports;

(7) provide assurance that provision has been made for the participation in the project of those children of limited English-speaking ability who are not enrolled on a full-time basis; and

(8) provide that the applicant will utilize in programs assisted pursuant to this title the assistance of persons with expertise in the educational problems of children of limited English-speaking ability and make optimum use in such programs of the cultural and educational resources of the area to be served; and for the purpose of this paragraph, the term "cultural and educational resources" includes State educational agencies, institutions of higher education, non-profit private schools, public and non-profit private agencies such as libraries, museums, musical and artistic organizations, educational radio and television, and other cultural and educational resources.

(b) Applications for grants under title may be approved by the Commissioner only if–

(1) the application meets the requirements set forth in subsection (a);

(2) the program set forth in the application is consistent with the criteria established by the Commissioner (where feasible, in cooperation with the State

educational agency) for the purpose of achieving an equitable distribution of assistance under this title within each State, which criteria shall be developed by him on the basis of a consideration of (A) the geographic distribution of children of limited English-speaking ability, (B) the relative need of persons in different geographic areas within the State for the kinds of services and activities described in paragraph (c) of section 704, and (C) the relative ability of particular local educational agencies within the State to provide those services and activities;

(3) the Commissioner determines (A) that the program will utilize the best available talents and resources and will substantially increase the educational opportunities for children of limited English-speaking ability in the area to be served by the applicant, and (B) that, to the extent consistent with the number of children enrolled in nonprofit private schools in the area to be served whose educational needs are of the type which this program is intended to meet, provision has been made for participation of such children; and

(4) the State educational agency has been notified of the application and been given the opportunity to offer recommendations.

(c) Amendments of applications shall, except as the Commissioner may otherwise provide by or pursuant to regulations, be subject to approval in the same manner as original applications.

(20 U.S.C. 880b-3) Enacted Jan. 2, 1968, P.L. 90–247, Title VII, sec. 702, 81 Stat. 817.

PAYMENTS

Sec. 706. (a) The Commissioner shall pay to each applicant which has an application approved under this title an amount equal to the total sums expended by the applicant under the application for the purposes set forth therein.

(b) Payments under this title may be made in installments and in advance or by way of reimbursement, with necessary adjustments on account of overpayments or underpayments.

(20 U.S.C. 880b–4) Enacted Jan. 2, 1968, P.L. 90–247, Title VII, sec. 702, 81 Stat. 819.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Sec. 707. (a) The Commissioner shall establish in the Office of Education an Advisory Committee on the Education of Bilingual Children, consisting of nine members appointed, without regard to the civil service laws, by the Commissioner with the approval of the

Secretary. The Commissioner shall appoint one such member as Chairman. At least four of the members of the Advisory Committee shall be educators experienced in dealing with the educational problems of children whose native tongue is a language other than English.

(b) The Advisory Committee shall advise the Commissioner in the preparation of general regulations and with respect to policy matters arising in the administration of this title, including the development of criteria for approval of applications thereunder. The Commissioner may appoint such special advisory and technical experts and consultants as may be useful and necessary in carrying out the functions of the Advisory Committee.

(c) Members of the Advisory Committee shall, while serving on the business of the Advisory Committee, be entitled to receive compensation at rates fixed by the Secretary, but not exceeding $100 per day, including travel time; and while so serving away from their homes or regular places of business, they may be allowed travel expenses, including per diem in lieu of subsistence, as authorized by section 5703 of title 5 of the United States Code for persons in the Government service employed intermittently.

(20 U.S.C. 880b–8) Enacted Jan. 2, 1968, P.L. 90–247, Title VII, sec. 702, 81 Stat. 819.

LABOR STANDARDS

Sec. 708. All laborers and mechanics employed by contractors or subcontractors on all minor remodeling projects assisted under this title shall be paid wages at rates not less than those prevailing on similar minor remodeling in the locality as determined by the Secretary of Labor in accordance with the Davis-Bacon Act, as amended (40 U.S.C. 276a – 276a–5). The Secretary of Labor shall have, with respect to the labor standards specified in this section, the authority and functions set forth in Reorganization Plan Number 14 of 1950 and section 2 of the Act of June 13, 1934, as amended (40 U.S.C. 276c).

(20 U.S.C. 880–6) Enacted Jan. 2, 1968, P.L. 90–247, Title VII, sec. 702, 81 Stat. 819.

LEGISLATIVE HISTORY

(P.L. 89-750)

House Reports: No. 1814, 1814 pt. II (Committee on Education and Labor) and No. 2309 (Committee of Conference).

Senate Report No. 1647 accompanying S. 3046 (Committee on Labor and Public Welfare).

Congressional Record, volume 112 (1966):
October 5: Considered in House.
October 6: Considered and passed House.
October 5, 6: S. 3046 considered and passed Senate.
October 7: Considered and passed Senate, amended, in lieu of S. 3046.
October 19: Senate agreed to conference report.
October 20: House agreed to conference report.
Approved: November 3, 1966.

House Reports: No. 188 (Committee on Education and Labor) and No. 1049 (Committee of Conference).

Senate Report No. 726 (Committee on Labor and Public Welfare).

Congressional Record, volume 113 (1967):
May 22-24: Considered and passed House.
December 1, 4-8, 11: Considered and passed Senate amended.
December 15: House and Senate agreed to conference report.

APPENDIX B

DRAFT
GUIDELINES
TO THE
BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

Under Title VII Elementary and
Secondary Education Act of 1965,
as Amended in 1967
(Act P.L. 90-247)

BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM
TITLE VII, ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965, AS AMENDED IN 1967

PROGRAM INFORMATION

The Bilingual Education Program is designed to meet special educational needs of children three to 18 years of age who have limited English-speaking ability and who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English. The concern is for children in this target group to develop greater competence in English, to become more proficient in the use of two languages, and to profit from increased educational opportunity. Though the Title VII program affirms the primary importance of English, it also recognizes that a child's mother tongue which is other than English can have a beneficial effect upon his education. The mother tongue, used as the medium of instruction before the child's command of English is sufficient to carry the whole load of his education, can help to prevent retardation in school performance. The literacy thus achieved in the non-English tongue, if further developed, should result in a more liberally educated adult.

Bilingual education is instruction in two languages and the use of those *two languages* as mediums of instruction for any part of or all of the school curriculum. Study of the history and culture associated with a student's mother tongue is considered an integral part of *bilingual education.*

PROJECTS ELIGIBLE FOR FUNDING

Title VII funds are available for exemplary pilot or demonstration projects in bilingual and bicultural education in a wide variety of settings. These projects should demonstrate how the educational program can be improved by the use of bilingual education. The Title VII program should stimulate and encourage the development and operation of new and imaginative programs, services, and activities which meet the special needs and potential of the target group. The words "new and imaginative" mean programs, services, and activities which (1) have not existed previously for the persons of the target group, or (2) programs, services, and activities which are to be substantially increased, improved, or extended by the means of the project. The following list of eligible projects is not all-inclusive:

a. Planning for and taking other steps leading to the development of the following types of programs:
   1. Research projects, especially those which are classroom-centered;
   2. Pilot projects to test the effectiveness of developed plans;
   3. Development and dissemination of special instructional materials;

b. Preservice training to prepare persons to participate in bilingual education programs as teachers, teacher aides, counselors and/or other educational personnel, inservice training to enable teachers, teacher aides, counselors, and/or other educational personnel involved in bilingual programs to improve their qualifications;

c. Activities related to establishing, maintaining, and operating programs, including the acquisition of necessary teaching materials and equipment. These activities include:
    1. Programs providing bilingual education;
    2. Bilingual programs designed to impart to students a knowledge of the history and culture associated with their languages;
    3. Efforts to establish closer cooperation between the school and the homes of children in the bilingual program;
    4. Early childhood education programs related to the purposes of this title and designed to improve the children's potential for profitable learning activities;
    5. Adult education programs related to the purposes of this title, particularly for parents of children participating in bilingual programs;
    6. Bilingual education programs designed for part-time pupils dropouts, or potential dropouts having need for bilingual instruction;
    7. Bilingual education programs related to the purpose of this title and conducted by accredited trade, vocational, or technical schools; and
    8. Other activities which meet the purposes of this title.

ELIGIBLE APPLICANTS

Emphasis

Under Title VII two types of applicants are eligible to apply:

1. a local educational agency or combination of such agencies;
2. an institution of higher education applying jointly with one or more local educational agencies.

In either case, a local educational agency must join in the grant application. In the case of joint applications, any applicant applying for assistance based on a budget proposal which it has submitted shall be the primary grantee with respect to such financial assistance. If separate budgets are presented to the U. S. Commissioner of Education, he may provide financial assistance to each of the joint applicants.

In order to qualify for assistance under Title VII, a school must enroll a sufficiently high concentration of children of limited English-speaking ability from low-income families earning less than $3,000 per year, or receiving payments through a program of aid to families with dependent children under a State plan approved under Title IV of the Social Security Act.

Although Title VII directs the U. S. Commissioner of Education to give consideration nationwide to the desirability of supporting bilingual education programs for many different languages, the major focus of Title VII must be located in geographical areas of greatest need. Therefore, the Commissioner is required to give highest priority to States and areas within States having the greatest need for bilingual programs pursuant to this title and to give consideration to the relative ability of the local educational agency to provide needed services and activities. Such priorities shall take into consideration the number of children three to 18 years of age inclusive, in each State, who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English.

Applications may also be submitted for programs for target group children in Puerto Rico, Guam, American Samoa, the Virgin Islands, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands.

Title VII was designed primarily to benefit children whose home language or mother tongue is other than English in places where English is the exclusive or dominant language of the schools. It follows, therefore, that while Spanish-speaking Puerto Rican children in mainland United States schools would form a major segment of the Title VII target group, Puerto Rican children in schools in Puerto Rico (where the dominant school language is normally Spanish) would not form a major segment of the target group.

In addition to programs directed at children, Title VII may also serve adult groups, particularly parents of children participating in bilingual programs.

Participation of Children From Other Than Low-income Families

In an area eligible for Title VII project, children with limited English-speaking ability are eligible to participate even though they are not from families with incomes below $3,000 per year, or from families receiving payments under a program of aid to families with dependent children under a State plan approved under Title IV of the Social Security Act.

Participation of Children From Environments Where the Dominant Language is English

In an area eligible for a Title VII project, children from environments where the dominant language is English are eligible to participate when their participation is such as to enhance the effectiveness of the program.

Non-public School Children

In an area eligible for a Title VII project, provision must be made for participation by children whose educational needs are of the type which the Bilingual Education Program is intended to meet and who are enrolled in non-public schools. Provisions for participation must be to the extent consistent with the number of such children in the area.

As far as is practicable, programs and services to such children should be provided on publicly controlled premises. Provisions for services for children in non-public schools shall not include the paying of salaries of regular teacher or other regular employees of such schools, except for services performed outside their regular hours of duty and under public supervision and control; nor shall they include the financing of regular school instruction for non-public schools, or the leaving of equipment on non-public school premises, or minor remodeling in non-public school premises. None of the funds made available under Title VII, ESEA, may be used for religious worship or instruction.

Local educational agencies and institutions of higher learning applying for assistance under Title VII are expected to consult with non-public schools concerning the needs of the latter's target group of students.

Children Enrolled Part-time

Applications must provide for participation in the program of limited English-speaking ability who are not enrolled on a full-time basis. This group includes, for example, migrant family children who are not students of one school alone for an entire academic year. If no need for such provision exists, applications must state the lack of need.

SUBMISSION OF PRELIMINARY PROPOSAL

Prior to the preparation of a formal proposal, the prospective applicant should submit 10 copies of a preliminary proposal to the appropriate State Education Agency and 10 copies to:

Director
Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers
U. S. Office of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D. C. 20202

This preliminary proposal should include a description of the need, the target population within the district, the goals of the program, procedures to meet the goals, and the plans for evaluation and dissemination. Instructions for preparing the preliminary proposal are given in detail on pages 10-15. Preliminary proposals should be submitted before established deadlines to both the U. S. Office of Education and the appropriate State Educational Agency.

U. S. Office of Education personnel and outside consultants will evaluate the preliminary proposals and receive recommendations from the State Educational Agency. Each prospective applicant will be notified when the review of his preliminary proposal is completed. Invitations to submit a formal proposal will be given to each prospective applicant whose preliminary proposal receives a favorable review. Submission of a preliminary proposal does not in any way constitute a commitment or contract on the part of or between the local educational agency and the U. S. Office of Education. It serves the purposes of identifying interested applicants and areas of greatest need, saves time for applicants, highlights promising ideas, and encourages submission of a wide variety of new and imaginative proposals.

SUBMISSION OF FORMAL PROPOSAL

Legislation for the Bilingual Education Program requires that each formal project proposal be submitted before established deadlines to the U. S. Commissioner of Education and also to the appropriate State Educational Agency for its review and recommendations.

Each applicant in developing the proposal, is expected to utilize the assistance of persons with expertise in the educational problems of children of the target group, and make optimum use of the cultural and educational resources of the area to be served. These resources include State educational agencies, institutions of higher education, non-public schools, public and non-profit private agencies such as libraries, museums, musical and artistic organizations, educational radio and television, and other cultural and educational resources. The applicant should give evidence which shows the qualifications of the experts and present a statement indicating the experts' willingness to participate in the project when needed. These experts will be used both in the preparation and the implementation of the project.

Equitable Distribution of Assistance

Each applicant must present for his area evidence of the geographic distribution of children of limited English-speaking abilities, their relative need for the programs, services, and activities authorized under Title VII, and evidence of the degree to which the applicant can meet the needs of persons of the target group.

Extent of Concentration of Children From Low-income Families

Each application must present evidence of the extent of the concentration in the affected school(s) of children of the target group from (a) families having an annual income not exceeding $3,000, or (b) receiving payments through a program of aid to families with dependent children under a State plan approved under Title IV of the Social Security Act.

CRITERIA FOR REVIEW OF FORMAL PROPOSALS

General Criteria

Each formal proposal will be evaluated in terms of: the recommendations of the corresponding State Educational Agency, educational significance, project design, qualifications of personnel designated or intended to conduct the project, adequacy of designated facilities, feasibility, degree of participation in the planning by persons in families of limited English-speaking ability with low incomes, and the special criteria listed below.

Special Criteria for Evaluating Project Proposals

The following criteria will be used to evaluate proposals submitted under Title VII:

1. Is designed to increase English language competency in bilingual education;
2. Gives evidence that the project reflects careful analysis of needs of the local district and that the program will address itself to the greatest needs;
3. Envisions an imaginative solution to bilingual education problems over a period of time;
4. Demonstrates local commitment and community participation;
5. Gives evidence of knowledge of pertinent research and modern practices in language education;
6. Describes explicitly the qualifications and intended use of experts;
7. Presents a new and imaginative plan which describes extent of need, objectives, procedures and materials, and which shows optimum utilization of area resources, administrative efforts, etc., which give promise of developing a model program. The plans should provide for the development of competence of enrollees in English;
8. Provides for systematic evaluation for the duration of the project;
9. Shows how the project might be of value to schools and communities outside the local district or the State;
10. Provides for extensive involvement of non-English-speaking parents and other adults in the community;
11. Assures that the appropriate training for teachers and paraprofessional personnel will be provided;
12. Demonstrates a willingness to continue successful components of the program after the termination of Federal funds;
13. Gives evidence that the project is economically efficient.

REPORTS AND EVALUATION PROCEDURES

Each project director must make an annual report and such other reports as the Commissioner may reasonably request in order to determine the effectiveness of Title VII projects.

The experience of schools with programs of bilingual education shows three general procedures for evaluating their effectiveness:

a. Systematic description of the social context and physical situation in which learning is to take place, with a description of the curriculum in both languages and the principal techniques in teaching. Such a description, if used, would be specific about the time and treatment given to each language, the content taught through each language, the provisions for coordinating the two language components of the program, and the extent to which the two languages are kept separate or allowed to be mixed during a given class period. The description would be specific about the teaching materials used and the training and fluency of the teachers in each subject or curricular area in each language. It would include, where pertinent, evidence of the extent of the parents' approval, support, and participation.

b. Use of tests to measure and report achievement in all areas of the school curriculum, including the two languages. Standardized instruments have been used (in some cases with parallel forms, the second being a conversion to the non-English language). Baseline data have been secured by the use of tests of mental development or capacity.

c. Reports independently made by consulting experts and outside experts visiting the program, observing what goes on, interviewing pupils, teachers, parents, and administrators. In connection with this technique, recordings of individual pupils, groups of pupils, and pupil-teacher interaction can be useful.

FUNCTION OF ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Title VII requires the U.S. Commissioner to establish in the Office of Education an Advisory Committee on the Education of Bilingual Children, consisting of nine members appointed by the U. S. Commissioner with the approval of the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. At least four of the members must be educators experienced in dealing with the educational problems of children whose native tongue is a language other than English.

DISCRIMINATION PROHIBITED

Civil Rights Compliance. Public Law 88-352, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, was approved July 2, 1962. Section 601 of Title VI provides that "No person in the United States shall on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance." Section 602 directs the various agencies administering Federal assistance programs to issue rules and regulations to effectuate the provisions of Section 601. Rules and regulations required by Section 602 were provided under Section 45, *Code of Federal Regulations,* Part 80. In addition to other requirements, you should be prepared to comply with all applicable requirements of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act in order to receive Federal assistance under P.L. 81-815.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SUBMITTING A PRELIMINARY PROPOSAL

The Bilingual Education Program is designed to meet special educational needs of children, aged three-18, from low-income families who have limited English-speaking ability and who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English. A single local educational agency, a combination of two or more local education agencies or an institution of higher education applying jointly with a local educational agency are eligible to participate in projects under the Bilingual Education Program.

Legislation authorizing this program calls for new and exemplary pilot or demonstration projects in bilingual and bicultural education in a wide variety of settings. A list, which is not all-inclusive, illustrates types of projects on pages one-three of the *Guidelines.*

Any or all aspects of the educational environment affecting bilingual education may serve as foci of project proposals under this law. These include, but are not limited to, programs which are directed to curriculum modification or development, administration, organization, instructional procedures, tutorial programs, adult education, in-service education, research projects, and family-school activities. Optimum use should be made of institutions of higher learning, State educational agencies, non-public schools, public and nonprofit private agencies such as libraries, museums, musical and artistic organizations, radio, television, and other cultural and educational resources.

A preliminary proposal may be submitted by one or several local educational agencies in concert or a combination of a local educational agency or agencies with an institution of higher learning. Eligibility exists as long as local educational agency joins in the grant application.

This preliminary proposal does not in any way constitute a commitment or contract on the part of or between the local educational agency and the Federal government. It serves the purposes of identifying interested applicants, saves time for applicants, highlights promising ideas, and encourages submission of a wide variety of innovative proposals.

See pages 11-15 for additional instructions in preparing the preliminary proposal.

Date ____________________

Director, Division of Plans
and Supplementary Centers
U. S. Office of Education
Washington, D. C. 20202

Dear Sir:

It is the intent of the ____
local educational agency

____ , ____
county State

to submit a formal proposal for a project in the Bilingual Education Program to be funded under Section VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended.

Materials required as part of this preliminary proposal are attached. We understand that a formal application may be submitted after review and evaluation by the Office of Education and the State educational agency.

Sincerely,

Superintendent or
legally authorized representative

cc:SEA

INSTRUCTIONS: In addition to the data requested below, give information requested on pages 13-15. The total preliminary proposal should not exceed five or six typewritten pages, single spaced.

Date____________________

REFERENCE INFORMATION

Name of Sponsoring Local
Educational Agency____

Address____
(Number and Street) (County)

____
(City) (State) (Zip)

Office Telephone (Area Code and Number)____________________________

Name(s) of other local educational agencies (if combination) or

____

____

Institution of Higher Education (if joint proposal)

Name of Institution____

Name of Authorized Representative________________________________

Title of Authorized Representative________________________________

Office Address____

Office Telephone (Area Code and Number)____________________________

POPULATION DATA FOR SCHOOLS TO BE AFFECTED BY PROJECT

What grade levels will be affected (inclusive)?________________________

What language, other than English, will be the focus of
this project? ________________________

Using the list of activities enumerated under (c) on pages 2-3 of the *Guidelines* circle the number of the kind of project you plan to develop. Your choice may involve one or more descriptors. If the project you choose to develop is other than these, please describe.

[1]
[2]
[3]
[4]
[5]
[6]
[7]

Other (please describe) ____________________

____

____

Estimate percentage of enrollee population which is:

Rural ____________

Suburban ____________

Urban ____________

What is the percentage of school enrollees, in the grades affected by this project area who are bilingual and who come from low-income families?*

In the blank provided indicate the Federal cost of this project for each fiscal year** of its duration.

FY 1969	FY 1970	FY 1971	FY 1972	FY 1973

---

*See explanation, page 4.

**Fiscal year is the period of time which begins July 1 and ends June 30 of the following year.

Indicate in the table below, the following data which relate to EACH grade level served by the project. Note that A is for data related to public schools; B is for data related to *non-public* schools.

Example: (Case where LEA* and project are are identical.)

Grade Level 3 in public schools of the system contains 3,000 children. Of this number, 800 are located in schools which comprise the project area; 620 are children whose dominant language is other than English; 60 are English-speaking, but will participate.

Within this local educational agency is a non-public school system which contains 1,400 children. Of this number, 600 are located in schools which will be served by the project area; 400 are children whose dominant language is other than English while 45 are English-speaking, but will participate.

		GRADE LEVEL Use one vertical column for each grade level								
		3								
	A	3								
	B	3								
Total A.D.M.** of LEA										
	A	3000								
	B	1400								
A.D.M. of children in Project Area										
	A	800								
	B	600								
Number of children in LEA whose dominant language is other than English										
	A	620								
	B	400								
	A	680								
	B	445								
Total number of children who will participate in project	A + B	1125								

---

*LEA means local educational agency.

A.D.M. means the aggregate days membership of pupils in all the schools involved in this project during the school year divided by the number of days the school is in session during the given school year.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

1. In specific terms, describe the target group, objectives, educational activities, new procedures and materials, utilization of area resources, administrative efforts, etc., which would make this program significant. Describe how your proposed program would alleviate or resolve your problem in bilingual instruction.
2. Describe recent studies and programs conducted by your school district to improve bilingual instruction.
3. What schools in your district have the highest concentration of children who speak a language other than English? Will the area having the highest concentration be the focus of your formal proposal? If not, why not?
4. How do you plan to evaluate the effectiveness of your program, qualitatively and quantitatively?
5. What are your plans for disseminating information about the (a) initiation, (b) progress and (c) results of your proposed program? What are your plans for demonstration?
6. If your proposal is funded, what will be the nature and extent of your annual local commitment to this project in terms of (a) dollars, (b) personnel, (c) materials and equipment, and (d) facilities?
7. Identify the cultural and educational and commerical resources including agencies, organizations, community groups, etc., which will cooperate with you in planning, conducting, and assessing this program. Parents of children who receive bilingual instruction should be included.

APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Joan Frost

Research Assistant, USOE Bilingual Design Task

Table 1. Number of Speakers
Table 2. Location of Speakers
Table 3. American Indian
Table 4. Enrollment by Tribe in Schools Operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs: Fiscal Year 1968
Table 5. Enrollment of Non-Native Speakers of English in the Public Schools of Hawaii
Table 6. Refugees Admitted, by Country or Region of Birth: 1946–1967
Table 7. Immigrants Admitted, by Country or Region of Birth: 1958–1967
Table 8. Immigrants Admitted Annually by Ten-Year Intervals: 1820–1960
Table 9. Foreign Laborers Admitted or Paroled Into the U. S.: 1958–1967
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Table 1. Number of Speakers

Language	Mother Tongue of the Foreign Born US Census, 1960	Mother Tongue of the Foreign Born Partially Allocated for Non-Response, US Census, PC(2) 1E, 1960	Fishman[1] – "Most Plausible" Estimate for 3 Generations of Non-English Mother Tongue Claimants, 1960	Wm. Gage[2] – Estimate of Speakers of Foreign Languages, 1960	Muller[3] – Estimate of Native Speakers of Foreign Languages, Jan. 1, 1964	Voegelin[4] - Estimate for 3 Generations, 1965
English	1,852,992	1,937,184	—	—	165,000,000	179,000,000
German	1,278,772	1,332,399	3,145,772	4,072,000	4,500,000	—
Italian	1,226,141	1,277,585	3,673,141	3,718,000	3,500,000	3,500,000
Spanish	766,961	813,429	3,335,961	4,430,000	3,000,000	2,500,000
Polish	581,936	581,936	2,184,936	2,067,000	3,000,000	3,000,000
Yiddish	503,605	503,605	964,605	907,000	2,000,000	—
French	330,220	329,685	1,043,220	1,261,000	1,300,000	1,300,000
Russian	276,834	276,834	460,834	399,000	1,500,000	—
Hungarian	213,114	213,118	404,114	365,000	500,000	—
Swedish	211,597	225,607	415,597	364,000	900,000	1,000,000
Greek	173,031	180,781	292,031	188,000	400,000	—
Norwegian	140,774	152,687	321,774	364,000	700,000	700,000
Slovak	125,000	125,000	260,000	221,000	—	500,000
Dutch	123,613[5]	130,482	321,613[5]	329,000	240,000	—
Ukrainian	106,974	106,974	252,974	218,000	800,000	800,000
Lithuanian	99,043	99,043	206,043	165,000	300,000	400,000
Japanese	95,027	95,027	—	120,000	—	—
Czech	91,711	91,711	217,771	180,000	900,000	—

Language	Number of Speakers					
	Census	Census	Fishman	Gage	Muller	Voegelin
Chinese	89,609	89,291[6]	—	118,000[6]	100,000[6]	—
Serbo-Croatian	88,094	86,957	184,094	138,000	300,000	—
Portuguese	87,109	91,592	181,109	166,000	200,000	200,000
Danish	70,619	85,421	147,619	64,000	400,000	400,000
Finnish	53,168	53,168	110,168	56,000	300,000	—
Arabic	49,908	34,766[7]	103,908	36,000	—	—
Rumanian	38,019	38,019	58,019	17,000	100,000	75,000
Slovenian	32,108	32,108	67,208	20,000[8]	100,000	180,000[8]
Tagalog	—	73,500	—	115,000	—	—
Balto-Slavic	—	49,610	—	—	—	—
Celtic	—	42,765	—	—	—	—
Hebrew	—	38,346	—	40,000	—	—
Armenian	—	37,270	—	34,000	100,000	175,000
Near E. Arabic dialects	—	14,517	—	—	—	—
Turkish	—	14,063	—	—	—	—
Uralic	—	13,798	—	—	—	—
Korean	—	8,550	—	—	—	—
Albanian	—	7,297	—	—	100,000	—
Persian	—	6,936	—	—	—	—
Malay (Indonesian)	—	6,857	—	—	—	—
Other Indo-Aryan	—	3,652	—	—	—	—
Hindi (Hindustani)	—	3,493	—	—	—	—
Scandinavian[7]	—	2,800	—	—	—	—
Amerindian[7]	—	2,267	—	—	—	—
Thai, Lao	—	1,666	—	—	—	—
Basque	—	1,580	—	—	—	—
Polynesian	—	1,372	—	—	—	—
Dalmatian	—	1,137	—	—	—	—
Dravidian	—	1,030	—	—	—	—
Niger-Congo	—	775	—	—	—	—
Other Persian dialects	—	567	—	—	—	—

Language	Number of Speakers					
	Census	Census	Fishman	Gage	Muller	Voegelin
Breton	—	535	—	—	—	—
Other Malayan	—	416	—	—	—	—
Burmese	—	377	—	—	—	—
Altaic	—	343	—	—	—	—
Iraqi	—	298	—	—	—	—
Mandarin	—	274	—	—	—	—
S. Semitic	—	262	—	—	—	—
Egyptian	—	247	—	—	—	—
Georgian	—	192	—	—	—	—
Algonquin	—	129	—	—	—	—
Hamitic	—	96	—	—	—	—
N. African Arabic dialects	—	80	—	—	—	—
Gypsy (Romani)	—	68	—	—	—	—
Libyan	—	57	—	—	—	—
Other Chinese dialects	—	44	—	—	—	—
Uto-Aztecan	—	43	—	—	—	—
Click	—	35	—	—	—	—
Athabascan	—	24	—	—	—	—
Eastern Sudanic	—	19	—	—	—	—
Tibetan	—	16	—	—	—	—
Welsh	—	—	—	—	300,000	—
Navaho	—	—	—	65,000	80,000	100,000
Cherokee	—	—	—	—	40,000	10,000
Frisian	—	—	—	—	30,000	—
Irish	—	—	—	29,000	—	—
Hawaiian	—	—	—	—	25,000	—
Penutian	—	—	—	—	20,000	—
S. Alaskan Eskimo	—	—	—	14,000	10,000	15,822
N. Eskimo	—	—	—	10,000		
Ojibwa	—	—	—	12,000	20,000	45,000[9]

Language	Number of Speakers					
	Census	Census	Fishman	Gage	Muller	Voegelin
Teton	—	—	—	10,000	—	12,000
Apache	—	—	—	—	5,000	12,000
All Other	314,293	8,113	—	—	—	—
Not Reported	708,871	377,976	—	—	—	—
Total	9,738,143	9,738,155	18,352,351	20,312,000	191,000,000[10]	—

[1] Fishman, *Language Loyalty in the United States.*

[2] Gage, in United States Congress, *Bilingual Education Programs,* pp. 414–415.

[3] Muller, *The World's Living Languages.*

[4] Voegelin, C. F. and F. M., "Indo-European Fascicle One."

[5] Includes Flemish

[6] Cantonese

[7] Not elsewhere classified

[8] Slovene

[9] Ojibwa – Ottawa – Algonquin – Salteaux

[10] Includes 165,000,000 speakers of English

Table 2. Location of Speakers

Language	Location of Speakers[11]	
	William Gage[12] (3 Generations)	Subject Report PC(2) 1E of the 1960 Census: "Mother Tongue of the Foreign Born"
German	N.Y., Calif., Wis., Ill. Pa., N.J., O., Minn.	N.Y., Calif., Ill., N.J., Pa., O., Wis., Mich.
Italian	N.Y., N.J., Pa., Mass., Ill., Conn., O., Mich.,	N.Y., N.J., Pa., Calif., Mass., Ill.
Spanish	Calif., Tex., N.Y., N.M., Fla., Ariz., Colo., Ill.	Calif., Tex., N.Y., Fla., Ariz., Ill.
Polish	N.Y., Ill., Mich., Pa., N.J., Mass., O., Conn.	N.Y., Ill., Mich., Pa., N.J., Mass., O., Calif.
Yiddish	N.Y., Pa., Calif., N.J., Mass., Ill., Fla.	N.Y., Pa., Calif., N.J., Mass., Ill.
French	La., Mass., N.Y., Calif., Me., N.H., Conn., R.I.	Mass., N.Y., Calif., Me., R.I., N.H., Mich.
Russian	N.Y., Calif., Pa., N.J., Ill., Mass.	N.Y., Calif., Pa., N.J., Ill.
Hungarian	N.Y., O., N.J., Pa., Calif.	N.Y., O., N.J., Pa., Calif., Mich.
Swedish	Ill., Calif., Minn., N.Y., Mass., Wash.	Ill., Calif., Minn., N.Y., Wash., Mass.
Greek	N.Y., Ill., Calif., Mass., O., Mich.	N.Y., Ill., Calif., Mass., O., Pa.
Norwegian	Minn., N.Y., Wis., Wash., N.D., Calif.	N.Y., Minn., Wash., Calif., Ill.
Slovak	Pa., O., N.Y., N.J., Ill.	Pa., O., N.Y., N.J., Ill.
Dutch	Calif., Mich., N.Y., N.J., Ill.	Calif., Mich., N.Y., N.J., Ill.
Ukrainian	N.Y., Pa., N.J., Ill., Mich., O.	N.Y., Pa., N.J., Ill.
Lithuanian	Ill., Mass., N.Y., Pa.	Ill., Mass., N.Y., Pa.
Japanese	Calif., Hi.	Calif., Hi.
Czech	Ill., N.Y., Tex., O.	Ill., N.Y., O.
Chinese	Cantonese: Calif., N.Y.	Chinese[13]: Calif., N.Y.
Serbo-Croatian	Ill., Pa., O., Calif., N.Y.	Ill., Pa., O., Calif.
Portuguese	Mass., Calif., R.I., N.Y., N.J.	Mass., Calif., R.I., N.Y.
Danish	Calif., N.Y., Ill.	Calif., N.Y., Ill.
Finnish	Mich., Minn., N.Y., Mass.	Mich., N.Y., Minn.
Arabic	N.Y., Calif.	Arabic[13] N.Y., Calif., Mich.
Rumanian	N.Y.	N.Y.
Slovenian	Slovene: O.	O.
Tagalog	Calif., Hi.	Calif., Hi.
Balto–Slavic		N.Y., Mich., Ill.
Celtic		N.Y., Mass.

Language	Gage	PC(2)1E
Hebrew	N.Y.	N.Y.
Armenian	Calif., N.Y.	Calif., N.Y., Mass.
Near E. Arabic dialects		N.Y., Mich.
Turkish		N.Y., Calif.
Uralic		N.Y.
Albanian		Mass., N.Y.
Persian		Calif., N.Y.
Malay (Indonesian)		Calif.
Scandinavian[13]		Calif., N.Y., Wash.
Amerindian[13]		N.Y., Mich., Wash., Me.
Basque		Calif., Id.
Polynesian		Hi.
Dalmatian		N.Y.
Brenton		N.Y., Mass.
Iraqi		Mich.
Mandarin		Calif., N.Y.
Egyptian		N.Y.
Georgian		N.Y.
Algonquin		Mich., Mont.
Gypsy (Romani)		N.Y., Calif., Mich.
Uto-Aztecan		Ariz.
Athabascan		N.Y.
Navaho	Navaho Reservation	
Irish	N.Y., Mass.	
S. Alaskan Eskimo	Ak.	
N. Eskimo	Ak.	
Ojibwa	Minn.	
Teton	S.D.	

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[11] States listed in order of number of speakers

[12] Gage, op.cit.

[13] Not elsewhere classified

Table 3: American Indian [14]

Language	Number of Speakers	Location
Navaho	almost 100,000	Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, Colorado
Ojibwa-Ottawa-Algonquin-Salteaux	40,000–50,000	Montana, North Dakota, Minnesota Wisconsin, Michigan, Canada (Sask., Man., Ont., Que.)
Cree	30,000–40,000	Montana, Canada
Eskimo	15,882	Alaska
Papago	11,000	Arizona
Teton	10,000–15,000	
Apache	10,100–14,000 includes:	
	San Carlos (8,000–10,000)	Arizona
	Mescalero (1,00–1,500)	New Mexico
	Jicarilla (1,000–1,500)	New Mexico
	Chiricahua (100–1,000)	Arizona, New Mexico
Cherokee	10,000	(North Carolina)
Muskogee (Creek)	7,000–8,000	(Escambia Co., Ala.)
Keres	7,000	New Mexico Rio Grande pueblos
Choctaw	6,722	Oklahoma (near Philadelphia, Miss.)
Blackfoot-Piegan-Blood	5,000–6,000	Montana, Canada (Alta.)
Shoshone-Gosiute	5,000	California, Nevada, Idaho, Oregon Wyoming
Hopi	4,800	Northeast Arizona

Language	Number of Speakers	Location
Cheyenne	under 4,000	Oklahoma, Montana
Yuman	3,900	Arizona, California
Zuni	3,500	West New Mexico
Santee	3,000–5,000	
Tiwa	3,000	New Mexico
Yaqui	3,000	Arizona
Crow	3,000	Montana
Chickasaw	2,000–3,000	Oklahoma
Sahaptin	2,750	
Tewa	under 2,500	New Mexico, Arizona
Ute	2,000–4,000	(Colorado, Utah)
Seneca	2,000–3,000	New York, Canada (Ont.) (Erie, Chautauqua, Cattaraugus, Genesee Co., N.Y.)
Northern Paiute-Bannock-Snake	2,000	N. Paiute – East California, Nevada; Bannock – Idaho; Snake – East Oregon
Kiowa	2,000	Oklahoma
Pima	2,000	Arizona
Comanche	1,500	Oklahoma
Towa	1,200	New Mexico

Language	Number of Speakers	Location
Arapaho-Atsina-Nawathinehena	1,000–3,000	Wyoming, Oklahoma
Winnebago	1,000–2,000	Nebraska, Wisconsin
Oneida	1,000–2,000	New York, Canada (Ont.) (Onondaga Co., N.Y.)
Tlingit	1,000–2,000	Southeast Alaska
Mohawk	1,000–2,000	New York, Canada (Ont., Que.) (Franklin and St. Lawrence Co., N.Y.)
Assiniboin	1,000–2,000	Montana
Yankton	1,000–2,000	Nebraska
Aleut	1,000–1,200	Alaska
Omaha	1,000 +	Nebraska
Cayuga	1,000 +	(Erie, Chautauqua, Cattaraugus, Onondaga Co., N.Y.)
Fox-Sauk	1,000	Oklahoma
Flathead-Pend d'Oreille-Kalispel-Spokan	600–1,200	Montana, Washington

[14] 1,000 or more speakers. Source: Voegelin, C. F. and F. M. "Languages of the World: Native American Fascicle One." Locations in parentheses, except for Canadian provinces, from Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs. *Indians of the Lower Plateau. Indians of the Gulf Coast States. Indians of the Great Lakes Area. Indians of the Eastern Seaboard.*

Table 4. Enrollment by Tribe in Schools Operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs, Fiscal Year 1968

Tribe	Enrollment	Tribe (cont'd.)	Enrollment (cont'd.)
1. Navaho	23,591	21. Araphaho	114
2. Aleuts, Eskimos, Indians native of Alaska	7,940	22. Colville	107
3. Sioux	5,441	23. Paiute	99
4. Chippewa	1,827	24. Kiowa	95
5. Pueblo	1,597	25. Havasupai	89
6. Cherokee	1,481	26. Sac and Fox	87
7. Hopi	1,390	27. Hualapai	81
8. Choctaw	1,320	28. Omaha	80
9. Apache	1,094	29. Assiniboin	74
10. Pima	1,042	30. Mojave	66
11. Papago	773	31. Ponca	63
12. Arikara, Gros Ventre, Mandan	774	32. Maricopa	47
		33. Goshute	47
13. Cheyenne	378	34. Potawatomi	45
14. Creek	275	35. Miccosukee	45
15. Crow	182	36. Warm Springs	44
16. Shoshone	133	37. Chickasaw	40
17. Blackfeet	129	All Other Tribes	623
18. Seminole	126		
19. Yakima	125		
20. Ute	124	TOTAL	51,558

Source: U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Division of Education. "Fiscal Year 1968: Statistics Concerning Indian Education." Table 11, pp. 35-36.

Table 5. Enrollment of Non-Native Speakers of English in the Public Schools of Hawaii

Native Language	Enrollment	
Samoa	611	
Japanese	416	
Philippines[15]	337	
Ilocano	335	
Cantonese	145	
Tagalog	121	
Chinese[15]	90	
Korean	40	
Spanish	39	
Visayan	37	
Manadrin	34	
German	21	
So. Pacific	20	
French	14	
Chamorro	10	
Tongan	9	
Other	36	
TOTAL	2,312	(1.45% of total enrollment in all schools)

[15] Language not determined

Source: Department of Education, Office of Research. "Survey of Non-English Speaking Students Attending the Public Schools in Hawaii." Table 1-A, p. 2.

Table 6. Refugees Admitted, By Country or Region of Birth: Years Ended June 30, 1946-1967

Country or region of birth	Number admitted	President's Directive of Dec. 22, 1945	Displaced Persons Act of 1948		
			Displaced persons admitted	Displaced persons adjusting under Section 4	German ethnics
All countries.	778,660	40,324	352,260	3,670	53,766
Europe	695,773	39,802	349,751	1,794	53,689
Austria	16,425	2,015	6,425	2	2,529
Belgium	1,664	147	947	1	3
Bulgaria	1,909	22	567	10	12
Czechoslovakia	19,586	3,386	9,522	277	2,839
Denmark	112	11	55	–	7
Estonia	11,259	145	9,943	221	263
Finland	162	12	93	1	1
France	2,080	157	791	–	8
Germany	100,064	16,071	52,049	5	10,069
Greece	29,226	7	10,272	3	2
Hungary	64,166	885	12,826	297	3,504
Ireland	61	7	31	2	–
Italy	62,303	154	2,237	12	19
Latvia	38,253	538	35,158	211	645
Lithuania	27,308	790	23,202	18	1,478
Netherlands	17,594	116	53	2	9
Norway	61	5	25	–	5
Poland	161,252	11,660	128,569	341	6,392
Portugal	5,011	8	14	1	7
Rumania	21,129	535	5,129	136	5,353
Spain	1,431	–	31	1	5
Sweden	443	10	347	–	–
Switzerland	309	66	131	1	3
United Kingdom	2,744	183	1,819	4	7
U.S.S.R. (Europe)	44,064	1,982	31,373	51	4,323
Yugoslavia	62,329	736	17,238	193	15,936
Other Europe	4,828	154	904	4	270
Asia	51,210	416	2,157	1,848	11
China[18]	16,751	284	909	1,729	2
India	95	4	7	1	1
Indonesia	15,903	–	2	–	4
Israel	762	–	16	8	–
Japan	4,355	3	9	2	2
Korea	4,430	–	–	–	–
Palestine	983	40	77	46	–
Philippines	372	3	19	3	–
Other Asia	7,559	82	1,118	59	2

Country or region of birth	Number admitted	President's Directive of Dec. 22, 1945	Displaced Persons Act of 1948		
			Displaced persons admitted	Displaced persons adjusting under Section 4	German ethnics
North America	25,958	50	228	3	57
Canada	72	3	17	–	8
Mexico	47	–	3	1	–
Cuba[19]	24,762	–	–	–	–
Other West Indies	265	5	1	1	1
Central America	28	4	3	–	1
Other North America	784	38	204	1	47
South America	135	24	15	–	4
Africa	5,388	15	78	25	4
Australia & New Zealand	63	–	10	–	–
Other Countries	133	17	21	–	1

Country or region of birth	Refugee Relief Act of 1953[16]	Act of July 29, 1953 (Orphans)	Act Sept. 11, 1957 (Secs. 4 & 15)	Act of July 25, 1958 (Hungarian parolees)
All countries	189,021	466	29,462	30,739
Europe	171,689	140	16,833	30,700
Austria	4,658	75	532	102
Belgium	451	–	8	8
Bulgaria	478	–	197	5
Czechoslovakia	2,916	–	53	180
Denmark	29	–	8	1
Estonia	657	–	18	–
Finland	18	–	36	–
France	660	1	198	10
Germany	20,922	54	598	29
Greece	16,922	4	1,504	12
Hungary	9,659	–	5,172	29,895
Ireland	18	–	1	–
Italy	57,026	4	1,686	2
Latvia	1,567	–	85	–
Lithuania	1,681	–	94	–
Netherlands	11,337	–	1,031	–
Norway	20	–	3	–
Poland	11,912	–	1,139	14
Portugal	34	–	125	–
Rumania	4,369	–	482	273
Spain	123	–	173	–
Sweden	79	–	3	–
Switzerland	38	–	59	1
United Kingdon	679	–	25	2
U.S.S.R. (Europe)	5,827	–	186	9
Yugoslavia	17,425	–	3,002	154
Other Europe	2,184	2	415	3
Asia	16,333	324	10,869	4
China[18]	6,903	3	2,820	–
India	46	2	21	–
Indonesia	3,148	–	612	–
Israel	521	–	210	1
Japan	2,268	287	1,505	–
Korea	630	4	3,793	–
Palestine	607	–	170	–
Philippines	121	15	187	–
Other Asia	2,089	13	1,551	3

Country or region of birth	Refugee Relief Act of 1953[16]	Act of July 29, 1953 (Orphans)	Act Sept. 11, 1957 (Secs. 4 & 15)	Act of July 25, 1958 (Hungarian parolees)
North America	486	–	191	35
Canada	15	–	7	1
Mexico	5	–	1	–
Cuba[19]	–	–	–	–
Other West Indies	50	–	164	–
Central America	7	–	3	–
Other North America	409	–	16	34
South America	43	–	22	–
Africa	405	1	1,492	–
Australia & New Zeland	29	1	13	–
Other Countries	36	–	42	–

Country or region of birth	Act of Sept. 2, 1958 (Azores & Netherlands refugees)	Act of Sept. 22, 1959 (Sec. 6) (Refugee relatives)	Act of July 14, 1960 (Refugee-escapees)	Act of Oct. 3, 1965 (Conditional entries by refugees)[17]	Act of Nov. 2 1966 (Cuban refugees)
All countries	22,213	1,820	16,072	13,095	25,752
Europe	9,896	1,376	12,729	6,625	749
Austria	2	–	69	14	2
Belgium	3	–	91	4	1
Bulgaria	–	–	317	301	–
Czechoslovakia	–	–	14	399	–
Denmark	–	–	1	–	–
Estonia	–	–	11	1	–
Finland	1	–	–	–	–
France	5	5	199	40	6
Germany	5	–	243	14	5
Greece	7	397	74	20	2
Hungary	5	1	1,350	567	5
Ireland	–	–	2	–	–
Italy	2	953	146	58	4
Latvia	–	3	46	–	–
Lithuania	1	–	21	16	7
Netherlands	5,033	–	1	1	11
Norway	1	–	1	1	–
Poland	2	2	686	378	157
Portugal	4,811	4	1	5	1
Rumania	3	9	3,370	1,456	14
Spain	3	–	17	613	465
Sweden	4	–	–	–	–
Switzerland	3	–	2	4	1
United Kingdom	3	–	15	5	2
U.S.S.R. (Europe)	–	–	180	111	22
Yugoslavia	–	1	5,258	2,384	2
Other Europe	2	1	614	233	42
Asia	12,262	431	642	5,799	114
China[18]	14	115	13	3,905	54
India	7	–	3	3	–
Indonesia	12,133	1	–	3	–
Israel	–	2	2	1	1
Japan	3	269	1	5	1
Korea	1	–	1	1	–
Palestine	–	3	33	7	–
Philippines	4	2	-	4	14
Other Asia	100	39	589	1,870	44

Country or region of birth	Act of Sept. 2, 1958 (Azores & Netherlands refugees)	Act of Sept. 22, 1959 (Sec. 6) (Refugee relatives)	Act of July 14, 1960 (Refugee-escapees)	Act of Oct. 3, 1965 (Conditional entries by refugees)[17]	Act of Nov. 2, 1966 (Cuban refugees)
North America	22	11	1	2	24,872
Canada	–	4	–	–	17
Mexico	–	–	–	–	37
Cuba[19]	–	–	–	–	24,762
Other West Indies	18	4	–	–	21
Central America	–	1	–	–	9
Other North America	4	2	1	2	26
South America	9	2	1	–	15
Africa	1	–	2,698	668	1
Australia & New Zealand . . .	8	–	1	–	1
Other Countries	15	–	–	1	–

[16] Includes 6,130 Hungarian refugees.

[17] Includes 6,562 conditional entrants under Section 203(a) (7) (A) of P.L. 89-236, whose immigrant status does not become final until 2 years after entry.

[18] Includes Taiwan.

[19] Cuban refugees adjusted under the Act of November 2, 1966 (P.L. 89-732).

Source: Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. *Annual Report 1967.* p. 41.

Table 7. Immigrants Admitted, by Country or Region of Birth: Years Ended June 30, 1958 - 1967

Country or Region of Birth	1958-1967	1958	1959	1960	1961
All countries	2,914,673	253,265	260,686	265,398	271,344
Europe	1,312,623	138,842	158,801	139,670	127,749
Austria	17,090	2,005	2,355	1,970	1,735
Belgium	10,187	1,164	1,145	1,066	1,123
Czechoslovakia	19,303	2,156	2,813	2,391	1,978
Denmark	13,664	1,492	1,450	1,495	1,326
Finland	6,652	738	689	754	689
France	39,237	4,100	4,487	4,253	3,957
Germany	260,422	32,145	31,422	31,768	29,048
Greece	54,383	3,079	4,507	3,797	3,392
Hungary	50,593	1,583	30,098	7,257	1,466
Ireland	61,281	10,383	7,371	7,687	6,541
Italy	190,130	24,479	16,251	14,933	20,652
Netherlands	35,617	3,711	4,005	5,070	4,608
Norway	21,338	2,385	2,484	2,533	2,353
Poland	82,511	6,607	8,301	7,949	9,281
Portugal	48,684	1,635	2,694	6,968	3,960
Rumania	13,024	805	1,345	993	813
Spain	21,792	1,354	1,528	1,737	1,812
Sweden	20,220	2,224	2,079	2,351	1,699
Switzerland	18,047	1,739	1,783	1,896	1,673
Turkey (Europe and Asia)	11,577	1,046	1,068	885	770
United Kingdom	245,904	27,613	20,954	24,643	22,717
U.S.S.R. (Europe and Asia)	20,182	2,114	2,872	2,472	2,352
Yugoslavia	31,280	2,260	4,349	2,742	1,989
Other Europe	19,505	2,025	2,751	2,060	1,815

Country or Region of Birth	1958-1967	1958	1959	1960	1961
Asia	274,108	19,336	23,534	24,071	21,529
China[20]	67,047	3,213	5,722	3,681	3,213
Hong Kong	14,228	342	844	475	625
India	11,865	513	506	391	421
Indonesia	15,712	338	960	4,554	3,804
Iran	7,105	433	409	429	471
Iraq	4,141	215	238	304	256
Israel	13,358	1,681	2,057	1,608	1,318
Japan	44,331	6,543	5,851	5,471	4,313
Jordan[21]	8,209	528	607	536	658
Korea	21,458	1,604	1,720	1,507	1,534
Lebanon	4,794	366	438	511	498
Pakistan	2,317	152	172	154	142
Philippines	40,710	2,236	2,633	2,954	2,738
Ryukyu Islands	3,942	209	308	372	371
Syrian Arab Republic	2,699	209	234	207	191
Vietnam	1,690	45	51	56	83
Other Asia	10,502	709	784	861	893
North America	1,092,102	80,788	64,740	85,075	103,388
Canada	310,746	30,055	23,082	30,990	32,038
Mexico	393,103	26,712	23,061	32,684	41,632
Cuba	154,257	11,581	7,021	8,283	14,287
Barbados	4,543	305	304	384	412
Dominican Republic	66,186	1,168	873	756	3,045
Haiti	19,497	766	543	931	1,025
Jamaica	25,938	1,342	1,695	1,340	1,283
Trinidad & Tobago	6,132	286	332	449	415
St. Christopher	2,461	22	128	155	155
Other West Indies	16,963	1,314	1,322	1,749	1,636
British Honduras	2,919	133	148	151	176

Country or Region of Birth	1958-1967	1958	1959	1960	1961
Costa Rica	14,552	744	698	803	749
El Salvador	12,430	757	679	1,091	1,007
Guatemala	10,712	644	510	627	662
Honduras	13,852	1,016	879	755	905
Nicaragua	12,151	1,326	1,129	1,301	1,306
Panama	18,147	1,744	1,571	1,722	1,875
Other North America	7,513	895	765	904	780
South America	194,277	11,039	9,792	13,048	15,470
Argentina	38,820	2,665	1,948	2,878	3,591
Bolivia	6,044	399	328	421	437
Brazil	18,273	1,360	1,180	1,399	1,443
Chile	11,136	636	689	924	1,120
Colombia	57,478	2,891	2,524	2,989	3,559
Ecuador	27,709	1,193	1,130	1,576	1,826
Peru	18,365	888	907	1,607	2,086
Venezuela	8,712	572	678	779	895
Other South America	7,740	435	408	475	513
Africa	27,183	2,040	2,631	2,319	1,980
Cape Verde Island	580	19	19	9	5
Morocco	3,120	251	344	355	276
South Africa	3,784	270	266	298	346
United Arab Republic (Egypt)	9,266	498	1,177	854	452
Other Africa	10,433	1,002	825	803	901
Oceania	14,248	1,210	1,178	1,179	1,204
Australia	7,427	715	646	671	625
Fiji	992	69	71	57	80
New Zealand	2,844	222	224	241	240
Other Oceania	2,985	204	237	210	259
Other countries	132	10	10	36	24

Country or Region of Birth	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
All countries	283,763	303,260	292,248	296,697	323,040	361,972
Europe	119,692	125,939	123,064	114,329	125,023	139,514
Austria	1,633	1,769	1,645	1,680	1,197	1,101
Belgium	1,042	1,029	1,055	1,005	797	761
Czechoslovakia	1,691	1,845	1,666	1,894	1,463	1,406
Denmark	1,413	1,487	1,322	1,384	1,137	1,158
Finland	691	623	694	669	519	586
France	3,732	4,015	4,039	4,039	3,175	3,440
Germany	24,088	26,887	26,739	24,045	18,239	16,041
Greece	4,702	4,825	3,909	3,002	8,265	14,905
Hungary	1,355	1,766	1,813	1,574	1,665	2,016
Ireland	5,486	6,178	6,307	5,463	3,241	2,624
Italy	21,442	16,588	13,245	10,821	25,154	26,565
Netherlands	4,317	3,656	2,851	3,085	2,275	2,039
Norway	1,983	2,089	2,238	2,256	1,676	1,341
Poland	8,098	9,546	8,884	8,465	9,404	5,976
Portugal	3,730	2,975	2,077	2,005	8,713	13,927
Rumania	784	854	1,391	1,644	1,938	2,457
Spain	2,148	2,187	2,252	2,200	2,954	3,620
Sweden	1,696	2,017	2,173	2,411	1,807	1,763
Switzerland	1,777	1,889	1,865	1,984	1,555	1,886
Turkey (Europe and Asia)	914	1,262	960	905	1,554	2,213
United Kingdom	21,189	25,916	29,108	27,358	21,441	24,965
U.S.S.R. (Europe and Asia)	2,277	2,045	1,802	1,853	1,362	1,033
Yugoslavia	1,857	2,560	3,098	2,818	3,728	5,879
Other Europe	1,647	1,931	1,931	1,769	1,764	1,812
Asia	22,105	23,759	20,885	19,778	39,878	59,233
China[20]	4,017	4,658	5,009	4,057	13,736	19,741
Hong Kong	652	712	639	712	3,872	5,355
India	545	1,173	634	582	2,458	4,642

Country or Region of Birth	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
Indonesia	3,056	1,566	281	326	357	470
Iran	601	705	754	804	1,085	1,414
Iraq	314	426	381	279	657	1,071
Israel	1,127	1,325	940	882	939	1,481
Japan	3,897	4,056	3,680	3,180	3,394	3,946
Jordan[21]	771	752	726	702	1,325	1,604
Korea	1,538	2,580	2,362	2,165	2,492	3,956
Lebanon	406	448	410	430	535	752
Pakistan	169	193	155	187	347	646
Philippines	3,437	3,618	3,006	3,130	6,093	10,865
Ryukyu Islands	371	334	462	677	469	369
Syrian Arab Republic	245	226	244	255	333	555
Vietnam	105	140	219	226	275	490
Other Asia	854	847	983	1,184	1,511	1,876
North America	121,226	129,705	112,973	126,729	127,340	140,138
Canada	30,377	36,003	38,074	38,327	28,358	23,442
Mexico	55,291	55,253	32,967	37,969	45,163	42,371
Cuba	16,254	10,587	15,808	19,760	17,355	33,321
Barbados	406	376	393	406	520	1,037
Dominican Republic	4,603	10,683	7,537	9,504	16,503	11,514
Haiti	1,322	1,851	2,082	3,609	3,801	3,567
Jamaica	1,573	1,880	1,762	1,837	2,743	10,483
Trinidad & Tobago	388	448	413	485	756	2,160
St. Christopher	235	151	157	172	216	1,092
Other West Indies	1,691	1,624	1,808	1,810	1,910	2,099
British Honduras	191	242	309	295	367	907
Costa Rica	1,407	1,754	2,729	2,911	1,582	1,175
El Salvador	1,289	1,695	1,684	1,768	1,415	1,045
Guatemala	939	1,228	1,436	1,613	1,584	1,469
Honduras	1,154	1,504	1,776	2,355	1,958	1,550
Nicaragua	1,083	1,430	1,531	1,332	984	729
Panama	2,098	2,184	1,750	1,933	1,594	1,676
Other North America	925	812	757	643	531	501

Country or Region of Birth	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
South America	17,592	22,919	31,102	30,962	25,836	16,517
Argentina	2,985	4,624	7,114	6,124	4,414	2,477
Bolivia	530	728	882	976	708	635
Brazil	1,560	1,973	2,416	2,869	2,397	1,676
Chile	1,137	1,153	1,509	1,872	1,260	836
Colombia	4,391	5,733	10,446	10,885	9,504	4,556
Ecuador	2,562	4,283	3,917	4,392	4,111	2,719
Peru	2,667	2,528	2,585	1,953	1,474	1,670
Venezuela	1,037	1,169	1,250	969	824	539
Other South America	723	728	983	922	1,144	1,409
Africa	1,931	2,639	2,887	3,383	3,137	4,236
Cape Verde Island	13	16	14	18	132	335
Morocco	274	282	303	280	298	457
South Africa	308	423	432	372	432	637
United Arab Republic (Egypt)	384	760	828	1,429	1,181	1,703
Other Africa	952	1,158	1,310	1,284	1,094	1,104
Oceania	1,203	1,289	1,325	1,512	1,820	2,328
Australia	552	677	679	757	858	1,247
Fiji	90	81	80	45	174	245
New Zealand	256	265	329	309	344	414
Other Oceania	305	266	237	401	444	422
Other countries	14	10	12	4	6	6

[20] Includes Taiwan.

[21] Includes Arab Palestine.

[22] Included in other West Indies in 1958.

Source: Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. *Annual Report 1967.* p. 61.

Table 8. Annual Immigration in Selected Years, 1820-1960

1820	8,385
1830	23,322
1840	84,066
1850	369,980
1860	153,640
1870	387,203
1880	457,257
1890	455,302
1900	448,572
1910	1,041,570
1920	430,001
1930	241,700
1940	70,756
1950	249,187
1960	265,398

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. *Historical Statistics.* pp. 56-57. *Historical Statistics, Continuation to 1962 and Revisions.* p. 10.

Table 9. Foreign Laborers Admitted or Paroled Into the United States : Years Ended June 30, 1958 - 1967

Country of last permanent residence	1958-1967	1958	1959	1960	1961
Total	2,720,846	433,704	464,128	477,207	312,991
Agricultural laborers					
Mexico[23]	2,377,363	418,885	477,535	427,240	294,149
Canada	76,478	7,381	6,892	7,804	8,543
British Guiana	210	–	99	–	105
British Honduras	323	–	–	107	–
West Indies	116,799	7,180	8,768	10,874	9,546
Japan	3,331	65	607	969	285
Philippines	151	27	–	–	–
Spain (Basque sheepherders)	3,309	166	227	213	363
Others[25]					
Canadian woodsmen	70,541	–	–	–	–
U.S. Virgin Island workers	60,759	–	–	–	–
Workers paroled into Guam:					
From Philippines	11,065	–	–	–	–
From Pacific Islands	517	–	–	–	–

Country of last permanent residence	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
Total	303,634	243,120	237,700	155,761	64,881	57,720
Agricultural laborers						
Mexico[23]	282,556	195,450	181,738	103,563[24]	18,544	7,703
Canada	8,462	9,832	9,530	8,149	5,251	4,634
British Guiana	5	1	–	–	–	–
British Honduras	216	–	–	–	–	–
West Indies	11,736	15,406	12,667	15,397	12,562	12,663
Japan	354	810	210	31	–	–
Philippines	–	124	–	–	–	–
Spain (Basque sheepherders)	305	411	338	453	477	356
Others[25]						
Canadian woodsmen	–	14,166	17,916	13,281	11,777	13,401
U.S. Virgin Island workers	–	4,452	12,528	13,514	13,841	16,424
Workers paroled into Guam:						
From Philippines	–	2,175	2,618	1,344	2,414	2,514
From Pacific Islands	–	293[26]	155	29	15	25

[23] Mexican nationals admitted under P.L. 78 prior to December 31, 1964.

[24] Includes 100,876 admitted under P.L. 78.

[25] Not reported prior to 1963.

[26] Three-month figure, April-June 1963.

Source: Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. *Annual Report 1967.* p. 73.

Table 10: Immigration of Probable Speakers of Spanish: By Country of Birth, for Years Ended June 30, 1960-1967

Mexico	343,330
Cuba	135,655
Colombia	52,063
Argentina	34,207
Ecuador	25,386
Spain	18,910
Peru	16,570
Panama	14,832
Costa Rica	13,080
Honduras	11,957
El Salvador	10,994
Chile	9,811
Nicaragua	9,696
Guatemala	9,538
Venezuela	7,462
Total	718,808

Based on department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. *Annual Report 1967.* p. 61.

Table 11. Immigrants Admitted, By Specified Country of Birth (Mexico or Cuba): Years Ended June 30, 1960-1967

	Mexico	Cuba
Year ended June 30, 1960	32,684	8,283
1961	41,632	14,287
1962	55,291	16,254
1963	55,253	10,587
1964	32,967	15,808
1965	37,969	19,760
1966	45,163	17,355
1967	42,371	33,321
Total 1960-1967	343,330	135,655

Source: Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. *Annual Report 1967.* p. 61.

Table 12: Immigrants Born in Cuba Listing Florida as State of Intended Future Permanent Residence, Fiscal 1960-1967

1960	3,294
1961	5,901
1962	7,234
1963	3,910
1964	5,628
1965	6,937
1966	5,906
1967	15,385
Total	54,195

Based on Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. *Annual Report.* P. 37 in 1960 *Report*; p. 37 in 1961 *Report*; p. 40 in 1962 *Report*; p. 41 in 1963 *Report*; p. 42 in 1964 *Report*; p. 45 in 1965 *Report*; p. 53 in 1966 *Report*; p. 55 in 1967 *Report.*

Table 13: Immigrants Born in Mexico Listing Southwestern States as States of Intended Future Permanent Residence, Fiscal 1960-1967

Arizona		
	1960	1,817
	1961	2,274
	1962	2,688
	1963	3,548
	1964	2,141
	1965	2,348
	1966	2,958
	1967	2,135
Total 1960-1967		19,909
California		
	1960	16,718
	1961	22,484
	1962	31,979
	1963	33,044
	1964	17,205
	1965	19,562
	1966	26,582
	1967	24,325
Total 1960-1967		191,899
Colorado		
	1960	243
	1961	177
	1962	190
	1963	219
	1964	131
	1965	121
	1966	157
	1967	143
Total 1960-1967		1,381

New Mexico	
1960	553
1961	903
1962	1,560
1963	1,463
1964	956
1965	868
1966	469
1967	467
Total 1960-1967	7,239

Texas	
1960	9,039
1961	11,103
1962	13,729
1963	12,097
1964	8,759
1965	10,118
1966	9,417
1967	9,395
Total 1960-1967	83,657

Based on Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. *Annual Report.* P. 37 in 1960 *Report*; p. 37 in 1961 *Report*; p. 40 in 1962 *Report*; p. 41 in 1963 *Report*; p. 42 in 1964 *Report*; p. 45 in 1965 *Report*; p. 53 in 1966 *Report*; p. 55 in 1967 *Report.*

Table 14: Spanish-Speaking Population, Region V of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin)

Prepared by Dr. Richard H. Naber,
DSAC Program Officer
February 12, 1969

The following revised statistical information is, for the most part, a rough estimate secured through various sources over the last two years. Information on the Spanish-speaking population in the five states of Region V is very fragmentary and most diffcult to come by. Nevertheless, it is hopeful that this information will still be useful for pinpointing initial pockets of the Spanish-speaking where programs may be needed.

Great shifts in the population of this group are occurring. A prime example is a school in Chicago where the Spanish-speaking pupil enrollment went from 300 to 3,000 in two years. The influx of migrants is really a separate problem since it is seasonal in nature. Nevertheless, many of these migrants are remaining as permanent residents.

	AREAS OF PRIME CONCENTRATION				
	TOTAL	Mexican Americans	Puerto Ricans	Cuban Americans	Other
ILLINOIS					
Chicago	230,000	140,000	80,000	60,000	40,000
Davenport) Rock Island Moline)	4,000	3,500	200		300
Joliet	3,100	2,400	600	100	
Aurora	2,050	1,700	300	50	
Waukegan	1,900	700	1,200		
Elgin	1,740	800	900	40	
Chicago Heights	4,200	3,300	400		500
Blue Island	800	700	100		
INDIANA					
Gary-Hammond East Chicago	22,000	18,000	4,000		
Indianapolis*	3,100	1,900	350	400	550
Ft. Wayne	3,000	1,800	600	100	500
South Bend**	1,000	750	250		
Terre Haute				250	

* Evidently the number of Spanish-speaking students (600 est.) for Indianapolis is so well dispersed among 108,000 public school youngsters and 20,000 parochial students that school officials do not find them to be a serious problem.

** There are about 490 youngsters who have been identified as Spanish-speaking in the South Bend School area.

	TOTAL	Mexican Americans	Puerto Ricans	Cuban Americans	Other
MICHIGAN					
Detroit	34,200	23,000	10,000	800	400
Lansing	10,100	7,000	2,000	500	600
Saginaw	4,000	3,700	300		
Royal Oak	3,700	3,000	400		300
Grand Rapids	3,000	2,000	500	500	
Ann Arbor	2,500	1,500	500		500
Taylor Township	2,000	2,000			
Flint	1,700	1,300			400
Lincoln Park	1,700	1,500			200
Utica	1,700	1,700			
Warren	1,700	800			900
Adrian	1,500	1,500			
Bay City	1,250	1,100			150
Benton Harbor	1,250	700			550
Dearborn	1,250	950			300
Plymouth	1,250	1,250			
South Redford	1,250	1,250			
Muskegon	1,200	1,100			100
Battle Creek	1,000	400			600
East Lansing	1,000	300			700
Grosse Pointe	1,000	1,000			
Holland	1,000	1,000			
Highland Park	800	800			
Jackson	800	800			
Kalamazoo	800	800			
Livonia	800				
Mt. Clemens	800				
Port Huron	800				
St. Joseph	800				
South Gate	800				
Wayne	600				
Escorse	550				
River Rouge	550				

	TOTAL	Mexican Americans	Puerto Ricans	Cuban Americans	Other
OHIO					
Cleveland	13,600	5,000	8,000	600	
Lorain-Elyria	8,000	2,000	5,600		400
Toledo	5,000	4,000	500		500
Youngstown	5,000	800	3,600		600
Cincinnati	5,000	2,900	800	300	1,000
Columbus	3,100	1,500	800	400	400
Dayton	1,650	900	600	150	
Akron	1,200	1,000	200		
Canton	800	700	100		
WISCONSIN					
Milwaukee	15,300	10,000	4,000	600	700
Racine	2,500	2,300			200
Kenosha	900	800			100
Waukesha	900	900			
Madison	600	350			150

Sources for the preceding information are:

1960 Census figures
Alien registration figures
Civil rights racial reports
Immigration data
Cuban relocation data
State racial census (Michigan)
Telephone conversations with school superintendents, state migrant directors, persons knowledgeable with the Spanish-speaking
Figures cited in speeches and found in press

Table 15. Principal Ethnic Groups in the United States[1]

Rank	Language	No. of Speakers
1	Italian	3,673,141
2	Spanish	3,335,961[2]
3	German	3,145,772[3]
4	Polish	2,184,936
5	French	1,043,220
6	Yiddish	964,605
7	Russian	460,834
8	Swedish	415,597
9	Hungarian	404,114
10	Norwegian	321,774
11	Dutch	321,613
12	Greek	292,031
13	Slovak	260,000
14	Ukranian	252,974
15	Czech	217,771
16	Lithuanian	206,043
17	Portuguese	181,109
18	Danish	147,619
19	Japanese	120,000[4]
20	Chinese (Cantonese)	118,000[4]
21	Tagalog	115,000[4]
22	Finnish	110,168
23	Arabic	103,908
24	Slovenian	67,208
25	Rumanian	58,019

[1] Based mainly on Fishman's "Most Plausible" Estimate for Three Generations of Non-English Mother Tongue Claimants, 1960. See Appendix C, Table 1.

[2] William Gage of the Center of Applied Linguistics estimates the number of Spanish speakers in 1960 to have been 4,430,000, putting them in first place. See Appendix C, Table 1.

[3] William Gage estimates the number of German speakers to have been 4,072,000, putting them in second place. See Appendix C, Table 1.

[4] Taken from William Gage's list. See Appendix C, Table 1.

APPENDIX D

IMMIGRATION LEGISLATION

Carol Phillips

Research Assistant, USOE Bilingual Design Task

Beginning Legislation

The Walter-McCarran Act, 1952

The 1965 Legislation

Today's Immigration Laws: Implications

Before 1882, the policy of the United States government, rather than restricting immigration, tended to encourage the flow of settlers by offering economic opportunities, improving transportation facilities, etc. Starting in that year the principle of selection was applied to set certain qualifications for entrance. This principle remained basic in all immigration legislation up to the present time, even though there have been periods of greater and lesser restriction leading up to the more liberal policies of today. Every immigrant must meet certain physical, mental, moral, and economic requirements in order to be eligible for admission and if an alien is found to be undesirable after admission, he may be deported. The first laws having a restrictive effect were designed to bar the entry of criminals, "immoral" persons, "coolie" labor, and paupers, beginning in 1882 with the legislation affecting the Chinese, who were barred from acquiring permanent residence in this country. Also, in 1885 an alien contract labor law was enacted to halt the importation of "cheap labor." Similar restrictive measures extended this policy until 1943.

During the period from 1891 to 1910 several classes of undesirables were added to the list of excludable immigrants (including polygamists, persons afflicted with certain mental diseases and disabilities or having dangerous or loathesome illnesses, certain other categories of mental and moral defectives, anarchists, saboteurs, and persons believing in or advocating the overthrow of the United States government by force or violence. In 1908 the principle of exclusion was extended by barring all immigration from the Orient.

> In response to rising resentment of unrestricted immigration during the First World War, Congress, on February 5, 1917, enacted what then became the basic immigration law, codifying all previously passed restrictive measures, and defining the categories of excludable aliens. Provision was made for inspection of immigrants on arrival, medical examination, and the return of unlawful immigrants. Especially noteworthy innovations were those barring illiterate aliens over 16 years of age, and natives of many Asiatic countries.[1]

Until 1921, immigration legislation was restrictive in terms of quality rather than quantity. In that year, however, owing to refugee problems abroad and domestic problems in the United States the first quota law came into being. The Emergency Quota Act of 1921 established a quota area for Europe, the Near East, Africa, and Australia. The countries of North, Central, and South America were not included in this system of limitation in this or in subsequent acts. The law limited the number of any nationality that could be admitted to the United States in any year to 3 percent of the number of foriegn-born persons of such nationality living in the United States in 1910, nationality being determined by country of birth. The total annual quota for all countries was 357,803. Since there were more people in the United States in 1910 who had come from northern and western European countries than from southern and eastern Europe, the law favored the old immigrant countries, allowing them an annual quota of approximately 200,000 as compared with 155,000 for the new immigration countries.[2]

The Immigration Act of 1924 introduced the national origins plan of immigration restriction, which continued, with modifications, to be basic to the United States system until 1965. The asserted purpose was to arrest the trend toward a change in the fundamental composition of the American stock. Up to 1929 the act limited the annual quota of any nationality to 2 percent of the number of foreign-born individuals of such nationality resident in the United States according to the census of 1890. The total quota under this plan was 164,667, with about 80 percent of it allotted to northern and western Europeans and 20 percent to southern and eastern Europeans. Beginning in 1929 the act provided that the national quotas thereafter should be calculated on the basis of a total of 150,000 a year. This number was apportioned among the countries to which the act applied, according to their relative contribution, by birth or descent, to the American population of 1920, with the provision that the minimum quota of any nationality was to be 100. Because of these minimum quotas, the total quota became actually 154,277. Certain classes of individuals were exempt from the quota, and certain preferences were given within the quota.[3] In 1943 the Chinese exclusion laws were repealed, and the Chinese were placed on the quota system, as were Filipinos and the natives of India in 1946, and finally almost all racial discrimination was removed by the act of 1952.

From time to time Congress modified the drastic restrictions of the 1924 act by a series of special enactments, such as those facilitating the admission of "war brides" and "GI fiancées" and easing the entry of "displaced persons" and refugees. In 1948, Congress passed the Displaced Persons Act which, unlike most immigration laws, was special legislation whose objectives had to be reached within a time limit set by Congress. This act, which became law on June 25, 1948, permitted the admission of 205,000 displaced persons during the two years beginning July 1, 1948. It was later amended to increase the number and extend the time limit. Under this act a total of 393,542 immigrants were admitted up to June 30, 1952. The displaced persons admitted were quota immigrants but their immigration was not delayed by the limitation or exhaustion of the annual quota since the act permitted mortgaging up to 50 percent of the quotas for future years. To qualify for admission each displaced person, in addition to the usual requirements, had to undergo rigorous security tests and be sponsored by individuals or agencies in the United States with assurances of employment and housing.[4]

The Immigration and Nationality Act, sometimes referred to as the McCarran-Walter Act, was a revision and codification of all prior existing immigration and nationality laws. Under this act the annual quota for any quota area was one sixth of 1 percent of the number of inhabitants in the continental United States in 1920 attributable by national origin to such a quota area. The purpose of this new formula was not to change the quotas but to simplify the mathematical calculations involved. As before, countries of the Western Hemisphere were not included in the restricted area; eligible native-born citizens from these countries might enter as nonquota immigrants without limitation on their number.

The act of 1952 eliminated many of the racial barriers to immigration and to naturalization as well. This was accomplished by setting up for quota purposes the Asia-Pacific triangle, defined by degrees of longitude and latitude—that is, roughly all Asian countries from India to Japan and all Pacific islands north of Australia and New Zealand. Separate quotas were established for 20 countries within the Asia-Pacific triangle and in addition, a separate Asia-Pacific quota of 100 and a quota of 105 for the Chinese.

As compared with the Immigration Act of 1924, the 1952 act broadened the classes of non-quota immigrants and gave new preferences within the quotas to skilled workers, parents of American citizens, and spouses and children of permanent resident aliens. It also added to the class of non-immigrants, those who seek to enter the United States temporarily. On the other hand, the act of 1952 added to the categories of aliens who must be denied visas and excluded from admission on certain qualitative grounds. This legislation was enacted over President Truman's veto and he immediately appointed a commission to study the immigration legislation. The commission issued a report concluding that the McCarran-Walter act "embodies policies and principles that are unwise and injurious to the nation."[5] Therefore, in 1957 and 1958 a subsequent series of amendments were enacted which tended to liberalize the law.

As a practical means of getting increased help for refugees throughout the world and encouraging permanent settlements for them, the United Nations set July 1, 1959 to June 20, 1960, as World Refugee Year. The United States, among other nations, agreed to take part and pledged support. An act was passed, effective July 14, 1960, whereby the United States would admit in any six-month period during the next two years 25 percent of the number of refugees taken by the rest of the world in the previous six-month period. This law was extended indefinitely by legislation enacted in 1962.

The new immigration law enacted in 1965 and effective in 1968 is a revision of all previous legislation. This legislation implements the 1952 act with new provisions, abolishes the national origins quota system, repeals the Asia-Pacific triangle, and thus rectifies, in part at least, past discrimination on the basis of race, sex, nationality, place of birth or residence. But it also creates new ceilings and priorities and revises the preference classes.[6] Therefore, close examination of these legal complexities may well reveal that the new preference classes and priorities are essentially ethnic priorities in disguise.

Under the new law all independent nations not in the Western Hemisphere are placed in worldwide competition for the annual allotment of 170,000 visas with a maximum of 20,000 for any one nation. The dependent areas are entitled to one percent of the "mother" country's allotment, or 200 visas each. For the independent nations of the Western Hemisphere there is an annual quota of 120,000 (exclusive of parents, spouses, and children under 21 of citizens just as in the other quotas), but there is no limitation on the number from any one country. The allotment is made on a "first come, first served" basis. That is those people earliest on the waiting list are the first to be chosen. As mentioned before, they are placed on the list or allowed to enter according to preference categories and the priorities favor immigrants with close relatives in the U.S. and those with certain special training or skills.[7]

As seen by the chart below,[8] we can expect great shifts in the ethnic and consequent linguistic groups which will be arriving in this country. Under the 1952 legislation, three countries alone received 70 percent of the total annual quota: Great Britain, Germany, and Ireland. As early as June, 1969 it is expected that Great Britain and Ireland will have completely disappeared from the top ten users of visa numbers, and the number of German arrivals will have decreased from almost 23,000 to 3,000. This radical change is due to the tremendous backlog in several countries, notably (and in order of their greatest numbers on the waiting list) Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Poland. This shift in favor of these last five countries named will become increasingly striking because of the above-mentioned "first come, first served" basis of the new legislation; and in this regard immigration of the British, Germans, and Irish will be greatly decreased for the next few years. Another notable change is the situation regarding the Asian peoples. In 1952 nations such as China, Japan, and India were granted 100 visas each annually, but today they have been allotted the same maximum number of visas as other potential immigrants.

SHIFTS IN TOP TEN USERS OF IMMIGRANT VISA NUMBERS*

Fiscal Year 1965 ending June 30, 1965		Fiscal Year 1967 ending June 30, 1967		Fiscal Year 1969 (estimated) ending June 30, 1969	
Great Britain	29,056**	Great Britain	23,071**	Italy	20,000
Germany	22,899	Italy	20,000	Greece	20,000
Poland	6,488	China	16,505	Portugal	19,600**
Italy	5,666	Portugal	12,137**	China	19,000
Ireland	5,506	Greece	11,170	Philippines	13,000
Netherlands	2,940**	Germany	8,333	India	6,000
France	2,901**	Philippines	7,128	Poland	5,000
U.S.S.R.	2,697	Poland	4,451	Yugoslavia	5,000
Sweden	2,496	Yugoslavia	4,218	Germany	3,000
Norway	2,363	India	4,143	Korea	2,900

*Visa issuance figures

**Subquotas used by dependent areas not included in the total

There still exist many inequities in the new law: (1) in some cases, backlogs are so great that immigrants in a particular preference immediately take up all of the visas available for one nation, (2) the overall demand for visas is so great that very few are left for those in the non-preference category, and (3) the total number of immigrants permitted in the U.S. each year has not been increased, and therefore the backlogs grow.

According to the 1968 statistics of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, almost one out of every 50 people in the U.S. is an alien. During 1968, a total of 3,876,304 aliens reported their American addresses to the Service.[9] So we can see that laws affecting these "minority" groups have more than minor implications for our entire society.

Joshua A. Fishman, who is seriously concerned for the preservation of our language and culture resources, speaks in his *Language Loyalty in the United States* of the implications of immigration legislation for language maintenance (pp. 378-381). According to him, an underlying belief which permeates much of our legislation in this regard is that too intensive or extensive contact by Americans of immigrant origin with their ethnic motherlands is indicative of un-American sentiments and is viewed as a "species of bigamy." Thus, long residence in or frequent visits to the foreign country of one's birth has in the past jeopardized an immigrant's naturalization or led to the loss of his passport. In addition, most countries seeking to maintain active contact with their former citizens through clubs, publications, etc., are deemed to be engaging in suspicious activities.

Time was when we may have had reason to fear a kind of balkanization within our country as a result of the waves of immigrants who came. But there can now surely be no reason for such fear. Rather, the last decades have witnessed a widespread Americanization of the rest of the world. This rich and democratic country can well afford to implement a liberal immigration policy, adjusting itself to innovation and ethnic variety. Having long prided ourselves on being a nation of immigrants, we can now move toward increasing satisfaction in "the many voices of America," which, in the words of Senator Ralph W. Yarborough, "compose a symphony of beauty and strength."

NOTES

[1] Weinberg, *Eligibility for Entry to the United States of America.* (The information to this point is drawn primarily from this source.)

[2] Davie, "Immigration and Migration," p. 715.

[3] Ibid., p. 716.

[4] Ibid., p. 716.

[5] Ibid., p. 718.

[6] Weinberg, op cit., p. 4.

[7] American Council for Nationalities Service, "New Ground Rules for Immigration to the U. S.," pp. 1-2.

[8] Ibid.

[9] Ibid.

APPENDIX E

A TYPOLOGY OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION*

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*Prepared for a Research Conference on Bilingual Education Under the Auspices of the Bureau of Research of the United States Office of Education, June, 1969.

INTRODUCTION

There are few countries where one cannot find some instances of bilingual education. In the past decade the demand for bilingual education has been increasing in most parts of the world. In the developing or emerging nations the demands is caused by the rise in the status of one or more of the vernacular languages combined with the need to maintain an international language for purposes of secondary and higher education. In other nations, where the official language has already attained international status, a changing climate of tolerance toward minorities has often made it possible for ethnic groups speaking a language other than that of the national majority to organize with official approval their own schools in their own language.

Some of these changes have been the results of regional necessity; others are the fruits of local accommodations, based on purely political motives. It is important that the pressures of politics be distinguished from local linguistic needs. And linguistic needs must not be confused with linguistic desires. Language minorities have often been the victims of emotional exploitation from within by the few who can use it as a level to personal political power.

One of the pawns in the politics of local minorities has been the question of bilingual schooling. This is a question which often arouses bitter conflicts which are rarely resolved by the sort of objective analysis and impartial study needed. The situation is aggravated by the lack of knowledge on the advantages and disadvantages of bilingual education and on the conditions under which it is useful or harmful.

What has made it difficult to obtain such knowledge is the lack of some stable references to the many sorts of bilingual education and also because of the lack of standard measures for the numerous variables.

Schools in the United Kingdom where half the subjects are taught in English are called bilingual schools. Schools in Canada in which all subjects are taught in English to French Canadian children are called bilingual schools. Schools in the Soviet Union in which all subjects except Russian are taught in English are bilingual schools, as are schools in which some of the subjects are taught in Georgian and the rest in Russian. Schools in the United States where English is taught as a second language are called bilingual schools, as are parochial schools and even weekend ethnic schools.

Bilingual situations of entirely different patterns have unwittingly been grouped together under bilingual schools and used as a basis for research on bilingual education. This is partly because the concept of "bilingual school" has been used without qualification to cover such a wide range of uses of two languages in education. The term "bilingual school" means many things, even within the same country, and in any discussion is likely to mean different things to different persons. It cannot therefore, in its present denotation, be taken as an object for research.

Since we are faced with various combinations of various factors, any single definition of bilingual schooling would be either too wide or too narrow to be of any use in planning and research, for what is true for one combination of factors may be untrue for another. And since the causes and effects of bilingual schooling are to be found outside the school, it is important to take these into consideration. What is needed, therefore, is not another definition of bilingual schooling or bilingual education but a classification of the field to account for all possible types–in other words, typology.

Since bilingual education contains so many variables, a systematic classification of them in the form of a typology could be of help in designing experiments and in talking about bilingual education; it could contribute to the systematization of bilingual school programs and suggest ways of coordinating research and development in this expanding area of enquiry. As a preliminary to any typology, it is necessary to determine how much it will take into account.

Since the terms "bilingual education" and "bilingual school" are used to cover a wide range of different cases, it will be advantageous to have the widest possible inclusion. Otherwise we would have more use for definitions than for a typology. Instead of trying to change any current usage, we shall simply adopt the most inclusive. This will enable us to classify cases ranging from the uniligual education of bilingual children in unilingual communities to the bilingual education of unilingual children in bilingual communities. It will make it possible to include schools where some or all subjects are in the other language. It is necessary to isolate and classify all types of bilingual education before measuring their components. This is preliminary to any research.

In order to be of use to researchers, such a typology has to be entirely objective and based on criteria that are observable and quantifiable. Such criteria may be found in the pattern of distribution of languages in (1) the behavior of the bilingual at home, (2) the curriculum in the school, (3) the community of the immediate area within the nation, and (4) the status of the languages themselves. In other words, bilingual education is a phenomenon in four dimensions. Let us take a look at the first.

1. The Learner in the Home

If we study the language behavior of the learner at home in relation to the language requirements of his school, we find that, classified according to language usage, there are five types of bilingual learner.

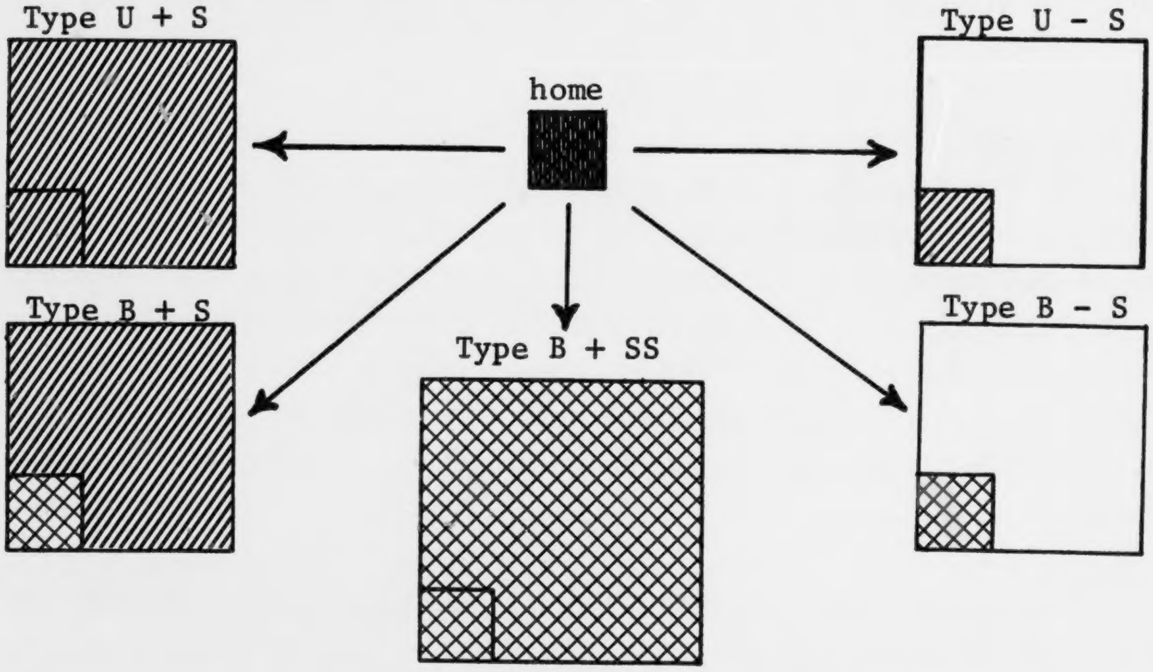
A learner who speaks only one language at home and the same language in the school, even though it may not be the language of the community, is in quite a different position from that of the learner who uses two languages at home and the same two at school.

Without going into the degree of language proficiency, which will be accounted for below, we may divide our five types into two categories: those covering learners from unilingual homes (U) and those from bilingual homes (B). In each category, there are the cases where one home language is used as a school language (+S) and those where no home language is used as a school language (-S); in the bilingual category there are the cases where both home languages are used as school languages (+SS). This gives us our five types of learner:

1. Unilingual home: language is school language (U+S).
2. Unilingual home: language is not school language (U-S).
3. Bilingual home: languages include one school language (B+S).
4. Bilingual home: languages exclude school languages (B-S).
5. Bilingual home: languages include both school languages (B+SS).

Trilingual, quadrilingual, and other multilingual cases are simply numerical extensions of the above.

If we use a small square for the home, a larger one for school, and shading for the languages, we may visualize the types thus:



2. *The Curriculum in the School*

Belonging to any one of these five types, each learner, with his acquired language habits ranging anywhere from complete unilingualism in one language to complete unilingualism in the other, enters a school where the importance and uses of the languages may not correspond to what they are at home. His place on the scale of bilingual usage–the ratio of his use of his two languages–is likely to be different from that of the school. Only at the extreme ends of the scale, the unilingual school for the corresponding unilingual learner (U+S), are the two points likely to correspond exactly. In all other cases, there is no guarantee that the ratio fo bilingualism in the entering language behavior of the learner will correspond to the linguistic assumptions of a bilingual curriculum. For the curriculum patterns of bilingual schools vary as to (1) medium of instruction, (2) development, (3) distribution, (4) direction, and (5) change.

(1) The medium of instruction may be one language, two languages, or more; in other words, the school may have a single medium (S) or a dual medium (D) curriculum. (2) The development pattern may be one of maintenance (M) of two or more languages, or of transfer

(T) from one medium of instruction to another. (3) The distribution of the languages may be different (D) or equal and the same (E). (4) The direction may be toward assimilation into a dominant culture, toward acculturation (A), or toward integration into a resurgent one, that is, toward irredentism (I). Or it may be neither one nor the other, but simply the maintenance of the languages at an equal level. In this case, the languages may be equal but different (D), or equal and equivalent (E). (5) Finally, the change from one medium to another may be complete (C) or gradual (G).

2.1 Medium: Single or Dual

Schools may be classified according to their languages used to convey knowledge, in contradistinction to the languages taught as subjects. Knowledge may be conveyed in one language, in two, or more.

2.1.1 Single-Medium Schools (S)

Single-medium schools are bilingual insofar as they serve children whose home language is different from the school language, the area language, or the national language. This may be the only language used for all subjects at all times.

2.1.2 Dual-Medium Schools (D)

In contradistinction to the type of school using a single medium of instruction are those which use two media—both the home and the second language, as the case may be, to convey knowledge. These are the dual-medium schools. Some subjects are taught in one language, some in the other language. In parts of Wales, history, geography, literature, and the fine arts are taught in Welsh; mathematics, social studies, biology, and other sciences are taught in English. Dual-medium schools vary not only in what is taught but also in how much. It is thus that they may be distinguished and classified. They can be compared quantitatively by measuring the amount of time devoted to the use of each language.

So far, we have made only a static or synchronic distinction between bilingual schools—single-medium and dual-medium schools. But since education is progressive by its nature, these distinctions must also be viewed developmentally, that is, on a time scale.

2.2 Development: Transfer or Maintenance

If we examine bilingual schools on the time scale, that is, from the point of view of the distribution of the languages from the first to the last year of the school's programme—or a section of it—we find two patterns: the transfer pattern and the maintenance pattern, both applying to single- and dual-medium schools.

MEDIUM

Development	Transfer	Maintenance
Single		
Dual		

2.2.1 *Transfer (T)*

The transfer pattern has been used to convert from one medium of instruction to another. For example, in some nationality schools in the Soviet Union a child may start all his instruction in his home language, perhaps that of an autonomous Soviet republic, and gradually end up taking all his instruction in the language of the Soviet Union. In schools of this type, the transfer may be gradual or abrupt, regular or irregular, the degree of regularity and gradualness being the variables available to distinguish one school from another.

2.2.2 *Maintenance (M)*

Contrariwise, the object of the bilingual school may be to maintain both languages at an equal level. This is often the pattern when both are languages of wider communication or are subject to legal provisions in the constitution which oblige schools to put both languages on an equal footing. The maintenance may be done by differentiation or by equalization.

2.3 *Direction: Acculturation or Irredentism (A-I)*

The direction taken by the curriculum may be toward the language of wider culture, toward acculturation; or toward that of the regional, national, or neo-national culture—the direction or irredentism.

2.4 *Distribution: Different or Equal (D–E)*

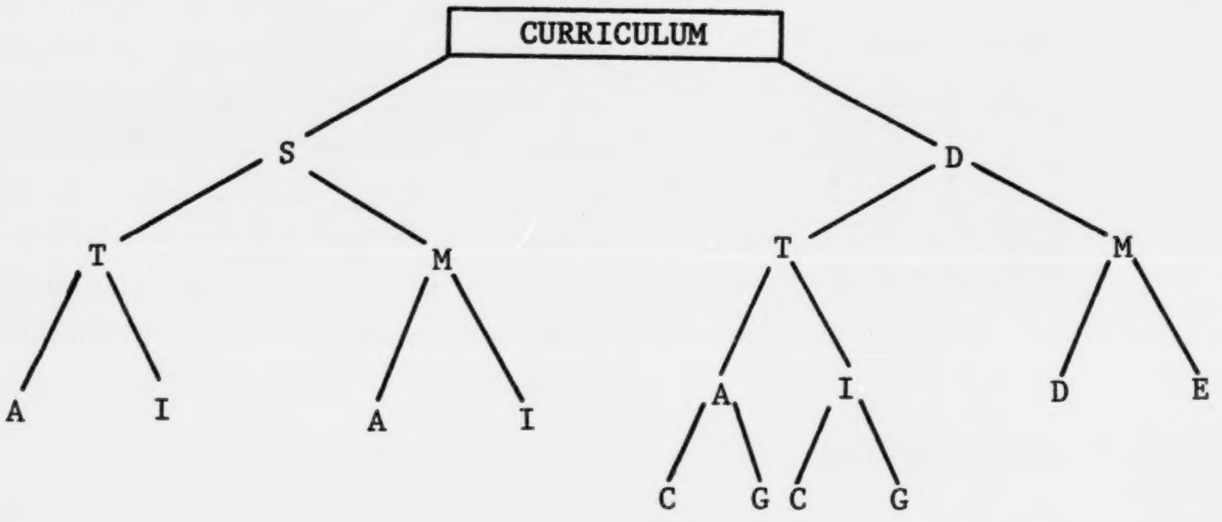
The subjects in the curriculum may be distributed differently, using different subjects for each; or equally, alternating or repeating the instruction from one language to the other.

2.5 *Change: Complete or Gradual (C-G)*

The change in direction or distribution may be complete and abrupt—using, for instance, one language one year and the other language the next—or gradual—adding more and more instruction in the other language.

2.6 *Curriculum Patterns*

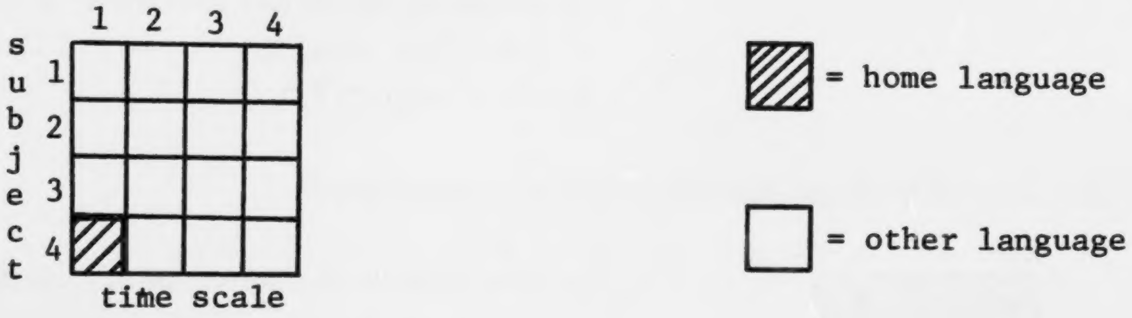
The interplay of these basic distinctions generates a limited number of possible patterns, as illustrated in the following figure:



The distinctions between single (S) and dual (D) medium schools, accultural (A) and irredental (I), transfer (T) and maintenance (M), and complete (C) and gradual (G) change generate ten possible types of curriculum patterns. These are: SAT, SAM, SIT, SIM, DAT(C), DAT(G), DIT(C), DIT(G), and DEM. Let us see what each of these involves.

What is patterned in bilingual schooling is the use of two or more languages, one, all, or neither of which may be native to the learner and have a certain degree of dominance in his home environment. Any of the five types of home-school language relationship described above may enter the curriculum patterns described below. To represent these we shall take the unilingual home, where the language used may or may not be the school language or one of the school languages.

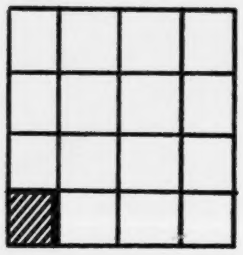
The curriculum, made up of subjects (vertical columns) and time units in which they are taught (horizontal columns) will be symbolized in a grid:



The home is placed beside the school, covering the lower left corner of the grid. It makes use of a language which may be different from that of the school, of the community, or of the nation. The extent to which the language is used is not a question of type but a matter of measurement–not of "what" is used, but of "how much." (See 4.1).

2.6.1 Type SAT (Single-Medium Accultural Transfer)

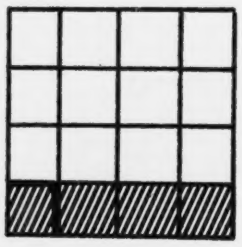
SAT



This type may transfer the language of learning from that of the home to that of the school. It may be completely accultural in that it takes no account of the language of the home. This type of single-medium acculturation is common among schools attended by the children of immigrants; for example, the English medium schools of Italian or French immigrants in the United States.

2.6.2 Type SAM (Single-Medium Accultural Maintenance)

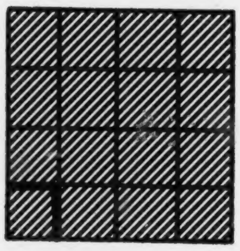
SAM



In some cases, as in the bilingual schools of certain parts of Canada, the home language or dominant home language is taught as a subject, without however being used as a medium of instruction. The maintenance of the home language as a subject may be the avowed purpose, as in the English-medium schools for French Canadians in Western Canada.

2.6.3 Type SIT (Single-Medium Irredental Transfer)

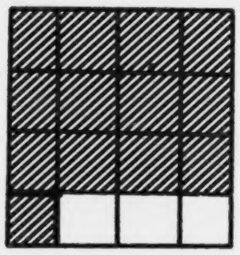
SIT



The converse also goes by the name of bilingual schooling. Here the home or dominant home language is used as a medium. Examples of this may be found in the multiple cases of language transfer, along the borderlands of Europe, resulting from the reconquest of territory. Witness, for example, the history of transfer of languages of instruction along the frontiers of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire.

2.6.4 Type SIM (Single-Medium Irredental Maintenance)

SIM

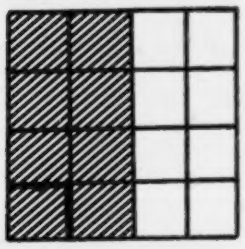


In some schools the dominant or formerly dominant national language is maintained as a school subject, as in the case of English in certain Gaelic schools of the West of Ireland.

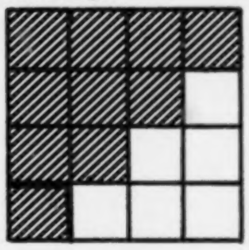
The common characteristic of all these single-medium schools is that only one language is used to transmit knowledge—a single language is used as a medium of instruction in all school subjects (although another language may be taught as a school subject, as it is in unilingual schools). For this reason we call these bilingual schools single-medium schools.

2.6.5 Type DAT (Dual-Medium Accultural Transfer)

DAT-C



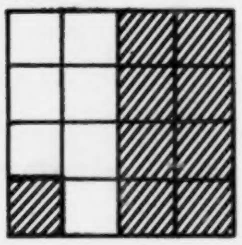
DAT-G



This type which, for obvious reasons of power and prestige is a common type, prepares children to take the rest of their education in a language or a dialect which is not dominant in the home—often a language of wider communication. Many of the schools in the emerging nations were, before they emerged, of this type. English in Africa was sometimes used after the third year. In other parts of Africa it was gradually introduced from the first year.

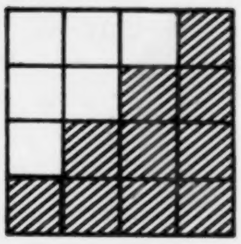
2.6.6 Type DIT (Dual-Medium Irredental Transfer)

DIT-C



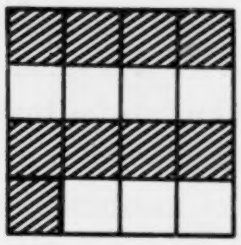
Conversely, in areas long dominated by a foreign language, the medium of instruction may revert to the language of the home, the foreign language being kept as a subject. Early Arabization of schooling in the Sudan illustrates this type.

DIT-G



2.6.7 Type DDM (Dual-Medium Differential Maintenance)

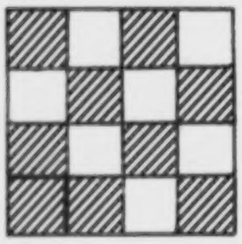
DDM



In maintaining two languages for different purposes, the difference may be established by subject matter, according to the likely contribution of each culture. Often the culture-based subjects like art, history, literature, and geography are in the dominant home language. Bilingual schools in certain parts of Wales are of this type.

2.6.8 Type DEM (Dual-Medium Equal Maintenance)

DEM



In some schools, as those found in certain parts of Belgium, South Africa, and Canada, it has been necessary–often for political reasons–not to distinguish between languages and to give an equal chance to both languages in all domains. This is done by alternating on the time scale–day, week, month, or year–from one language to the other.

We have seen that, from the point of view of patterning, the curriculum of bilingual schools can be distinguished between single- and dual-medium schools, each following transfer or maintenance patterns–transfer being accultural or irredental, maintenance based on differentiation or equalization.

These patterns may remain stable or evolve, slowly or rapidly, along with changes in pressures and policies. If, for example, one studies the changes in the laws of Louisiana during the past century, one notices several changes in approved patterns of bilingual schooling. The law of 1839 assumes the existence of both French and English single-medium schools. The constitution of 1879 authorizes that all subjects be given in both languages (Article 226). Whereas the 1898 constitution authorizes the teaching of French only as a subject (Article 251). In the constitution of 1921 all allusion to French disappears. Recent cultural accords between Louisiana and Quebec again encourage the use of French in instruction.

It is necessary, however, to distinguish between the patterns of language education used in a community and their avowed purposes. For example, a community may have language maintenance as its purpose, but be saddled with a transfer-type curriculum.

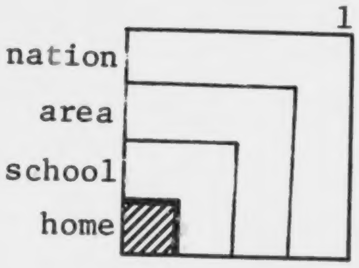
3. The Community in the Nation

Any one of these ten types of curriculum patterns (SAT, SAM, SIT, SIM, DAT-C, DAT-G, DIT-C, DIT-G, DDM, DEM) may function in a number of different types of language areas and national states.

It makes a great difference whether one of the languages used in school is that of the surrounding community, or that of the wider community. The home and community contexts in which the language is used must be taken into consideration if the language is to be used in school, since it is on the assumption of usage and consequent knowledge that the teaching is based. There is a difference, for example, in using English as a medium of instruction in one of the special language schools of Kiev and using it as a medium of instruction in the Ukrainian bilingual schools outside Edmonton.

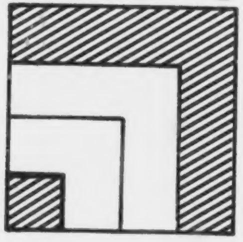
The following are the possibilities of area and national contextual settings in which the above curriculum patterns may appear.

1



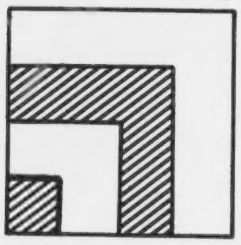
1. The school may be located in a place where the language of both the area and the national language is not that of the home.

2



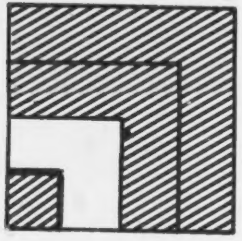
2. It may be in a country where the language of the home but not that of the area is the national tongue.

3



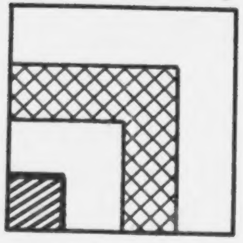
3. Conversely, the language of the area and not of the nation may be that of the home.

4



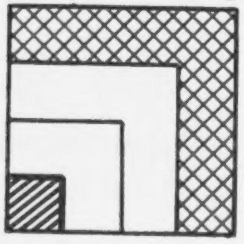
4. Both area and national language may be that of the home.

5



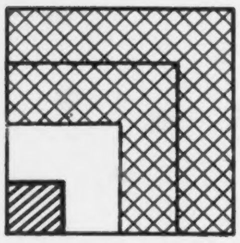
5. The national language may not be that of the home but the area may be bilingual with both the home and national languages being used.

6



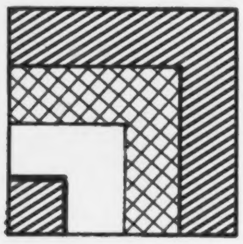
6. Conversely, the country may be bilingual and the area unilingual.

7



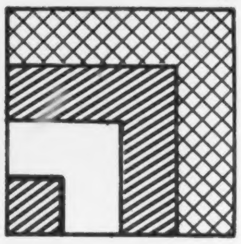
7. Both the area and the country may be bilingual.

8



8. The area may be bilingual and the national language may be that of the home.

9



9. Finally, the country may be bilingual and the area language that of the home.

The typology so far elaborated has been based on variations in language patterning in the usage of the nation, the area, and the school; But much depends on which languages are used and what sort.

Certain languages may be worth maintaining regardless of the community. If Spanish and French, for example, are regarded as legitimate specialties for the unilingual, why should they not also be for the bilingual whose other language is one of these? On the other hand, the language may not lead far, even though the probability of community maintenance may be high.

If each of these nine contexts can absorb each of the ten types of curriculum patterns, then there are ninety basically different patterns of bilingual schooling, giving us the typology which appears in the appended figure. Each of these ninety patterns may absorb one or more of the five home-school categories. If we eliminate mutually exclusive combinations, this leaves some 250 integrated types, ranging from (U-S)SAT 1 to (B+SS) DEM 9.

This should permit us to plan for the elaboration of objective distinctions between bilingual education and bilingual schooling. For example, a bilingual classroom with a DAT curriculum pattern may contain learners with different patterns of bilingual education, depending on the category of relationship with the home language. All five types may find themselves in the same classroom, all doing the same thing. Whether it is wise to put them in the same class is another question; but it cannot be answered until something is known about the different home language behavior patterns of the learners. What type of curriculum pattern is suitable for which type of bilingual is a question yet to be resolved.

A number of these curriculum patterns may be in operation within the same school system, in the same area, or in the same country. Which type of curriculum is most appropriate for which type of area is another question.

Before any of these questions can be answered with any degree of certainty some means must be found of quantifying the variable within each type. All that the typology can do at present is to enable us to distinguish one bilingual educational situation from another in order to observe both of them systematically. But within each type there may be quantitative variations. The DAT type, for example, indicates that some school subjects are taught in one language and some in another; it does not tell us which ones or how many. It is only by using the typology to obtain a more detailed profile of each program of bilingual schooling that it will be possible to find out exactly what is going on in any area in the field of bilingual education, as compared with what may be going on some place else. This is what has been attempted in the appended questionnaire, designed as it is to pattern descriptions of bilingual schooling into the typology for purposes of study and comparison.

The greatest problem of pattern quantification, however, remains in the fourth area—that of the contact between the languages themselves.

4. The Languages in the Pattern

The component common to all types at all levels is language. In fact, the entire typology may be viewed as a series of patterns of distribution of two or more languages in the area of the learner, within the home, the school, the area, and the nation.

This common component is itself a variable. So that each language appears in each pattern at a certain degree of intensity. Any planning or research design has to take this into account in trying to fit persons into the right patterns. For it makes a difference whether or not a child's proficiency in one or more languages is on a par with that of the rest of the class, and whether the level of proficiency is sufficient for the language to be used as a medium of instruction.

In order to understand the nature of the language variable in bilingual education it is important to make a distinction between the function of the languages, their status, and the linguistic and cultural differences between them.

4.1. The Functions of the Languages

The languages involved in bilingual education may have different functions in the home, in the school, and in the country.

4.1.1 Languages in the Home

The learner brings to the school a pattern of language behavior and a configuration of language dominance. It is not only a question of which language is involved, but to what extent.

There is a wide range of possible variation in the competence of the learner in each of his languages. Each language may be of a standard acceptable for unilingual education, or only one may be acceptable to a unilingual teacher, or neither may be comparable in degree to the language proficiency of unilingual speakers.

To study what happens to this entering behavior under the influence of bilingual schooling, standardized screening instruments are needed–both wide-mesh and fine-mesh. We need easily used and validated wide-mesh screens for quantitative analysis of bilingual population samples. We need fine-mesh screens for small laboratory-type studies and depth analysis of individual cases. There is need for the application of language proficiency measures suitable for bilingual children.

But the child's proficiency may be limited in some domains and extensive in others, depending on his pattern of language behavior outside the school; he may, for instance, speak about certain things in one language to his father and about others in another language to his mother and her relatives. There is need therefore for simple scales to measure the degree of dominance in each of the child's domains.

If the child comes from a home where two or more languages are used, he may find it difficult to separate them. The extent and degree of language mixture may vary considerably from one bilingual child to the next, and from one domain to another. Tests will be needed to show how well a bilingual child keeps his languages apart.

4.1.2 Languages in the School

The language component also varies within the school–in the curriculum and in inter-pupil communication.

It is first important to determine the sort and amount of both languages used in the classroom. Two identical curriculum pattterns may vary in the proportion of time devoted to each language. This is measurable by simple computation. But they may also vary in the domains in which each language is used. In one curriculum the second language may be used for history and geography; in the other it may be used for science and mathematics. In practice, each curriculum pattern would have to be quantified for each language in terms of proportion and domain of use. (See appended questionnaire.)

What is the language of the playground and of the street? In inter-pupil communication, it makes a difference how many of the other learners speak the language or languages of the child, and to what extent. It also makes a difference whether or not the child uses the same language at play as he does in school or at home. Some simple measure of the use of language or languages in the immediate context of the learner's activity would be a help in planning for bilingual education.

4.1.3 Languages in the Community

The extent to which the language or languages of the school may be used in the area in which it is located is an important variable in the language education of the child. Some measurement of this is prerequisite to any planning or research into bilingual education.

The role that each language plays in the nation is also of importance. It makes a difference whether both or only one of the languages is rated as official or national. The legal status of a language may be limited to a juridical subdivision of the nation. Both the proportion of the population using each language and its distribution throughout the nation may have some influence on the curriculum pattern selected. So will the international status of the languages and the distance between them.

4.2 The Status of the Languages

If the languages involved are languages of wider communication, like Spanish and French, the bilingual situation is bound to be different from those involving local languages like Navajo. It is also important to find out the extent to which each language is dynamic or recessive, concentrated or diffuse, both at the international and at the national or regional level.

4.2.1 International Status

In order to determine the international status of a modern language as one factor in planning the curriculum, languages in a bilingual school may be rated according to five indices:

1. Degree of standardization.

2. Demographic Index: Population figures.

3. Economic Index: Population/Gross national product.

4. Distributional Index: Number and spread of areas in which the language is spoken.

5. Cultural Index: Annual production of printed matter/Cumulative production.

4.2.2 National or Regional Status

The dialects of the languages used may differ in the extent to which each deviates from the norm or norms that may have been established for them. If two international languages are used as instructional media, the dialect version of one may differ little from the standard speech comprehensible anywhere the language is used. The other language, however, may be available in the area only in a local sub-standard variety. And this variety may not be the same, either as the one used in the home, the school, or the nation. The Alemanic home dialects of German Switzerland, for example, are far removed from the sort of Standard German taught in Swiss schools.

4.3 The Differences Between the Languages

The rapidity with which a learner is likely to understand another language, used to teach him school subjects, depends on the degree of difference or distance between both languages. Because of the close relationship between Portuguese and Spanish, a learner whose mother tongue is Portuguese may take less time to learn to understand instruction given in Spanish than instruction given in more distant languages like English or Chinese.

This same similarity, which facilitates understanding (listening and reading) may be the cause of multiple mistakes in speaking and writing–due to the interference caused by the closeness of both languages. We need measures of the closeness and mutual intelligibility of the languages involved in bilingual instruction and means of predicting the effects of the languages on the comprehension and expression of the bilingual learner.

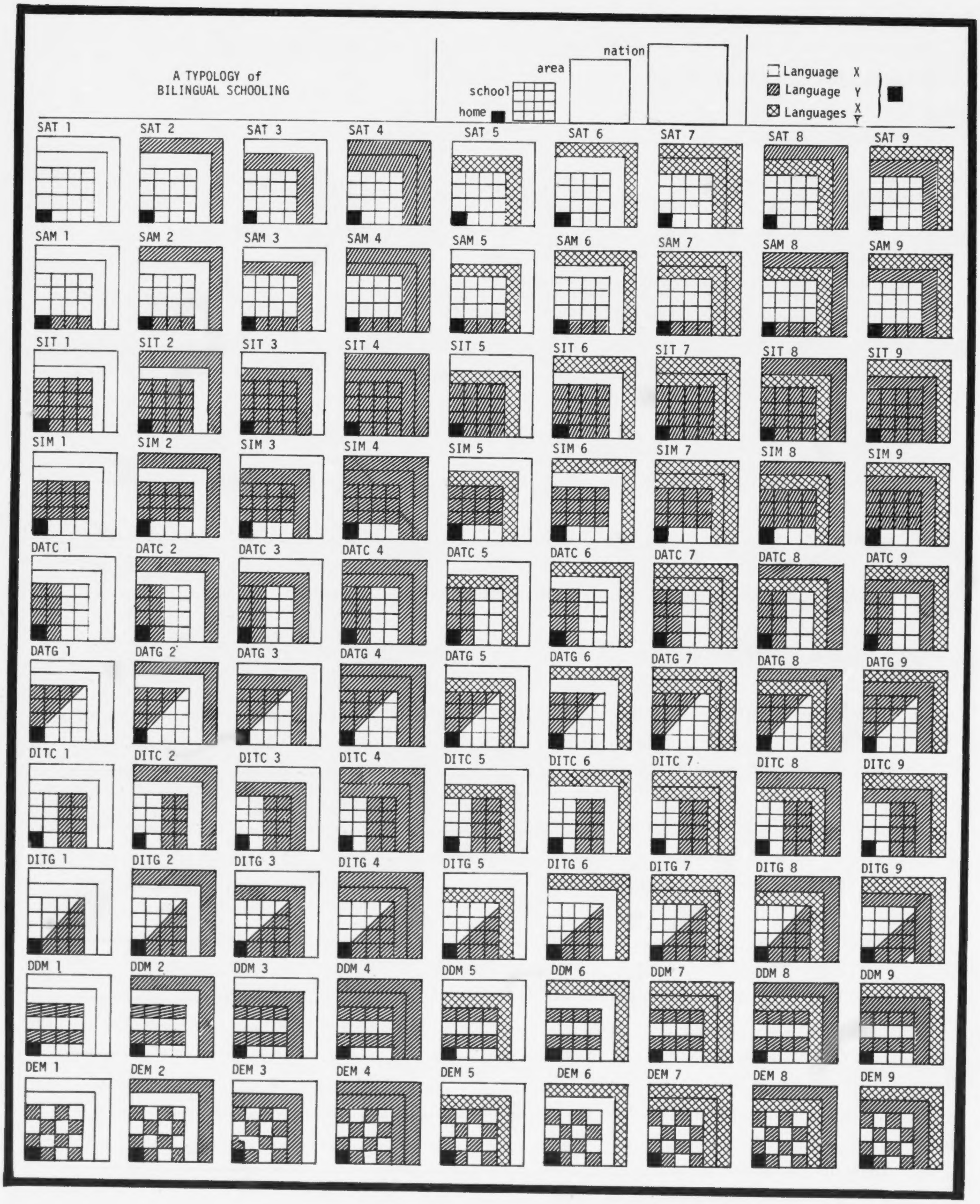
Regardless of similarities and differences in structure and vocabulary, the two languages may differ considerably in available cultural concepts. For example, Hungarian is genetically as distant from English as is Eskimo; but it is culturally closer, since both English and Hungarian embody many common European cultural concepts, which can be assumed as a basis for bilingual education. Before making use of this variable in research into bilingual education, however, it would be most useful to determine some way of quantifying it.

Conclusion

Once we have reduced our language variables to appropriate measures within the various types of bilingual education, it will be easier to analyze and classify specific cases.

It is only after we have taken all the variables into account and applied appropriate measures of them that we can achieve any degree of certainty in our planning in this important and complex field. Toward this end it is hoped that this preliminary typology may be of some help.

Attachment A


A TYPOLOGY of
BILINGUAL SCHOOLING
nation
area
school
home
Language X
Language Y
Languages X Y
SAT 1
SAT 2
SAT 3
SAT 4
SAT 5
SAT 6
SAT 7
SAT 8
SAT 9
SAM 1
SAM 2
SAM 3
SAM 4
SAM 5
SAM 6
SAM 7
SAM 8
SAM 9
SIT 1
SIT 2
SIT 3
SIT 4
SIT 5
SIT 6
SIT 7
SIT 8
SIT 9
SIM 1
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SIM 3
SIM 4
SIM 5
SIM 6
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DATC 1
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Attachment B

Name of institution or school system: ____________________

Address: ____________________

Name of person responding to questionnaire: ____________________

CURRICULUM
PATTERNS
IN
BILINGUAL
EDUCATION

1. Home language(s) of pupils: ____________________

2. Language(s) used in teaching: ____________________

3. Number of months of instruction a year: ____________________

4. For how many years has program presently described been operating? ____________________

   Is it experimental ☐ or operational ☐ ?

5. How many schools are included? ____________________

6. How many learners are involved? ____________________

7. How many teachers are involved? ____________________

8. Are there any teachers for special subjects? ____________________

   Which subjects? ____________________

9. How long is the subject or class period? (in minutes) ____________________

   If it varies, please explain. ____________________

10. Do you select pupils for the bilingual program? ____________________

    How do you select them? ____________________

11. Approximately what proportion of learners speak

a) only English? ____________________

b) no English? ____________________

12. Does the learner do his written work in a language other than English?

English? ____________ Which language? ____________

At what level? ____________ What proportion? ____________

13. At the end of the program here described, what type of school or program do the students enter?

____

14. Outside the class, how ~~often do~~ your pupils use English to communicate among themselves? ____

____

NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15. What are some of the main problems you have noticed in operating this program? Please feel free to comment at length. ____________________

____

SUBJECTS	2-year-olds	3-year-olds	4-year-olds	5-year-olds	6-year-olds	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Other

. Footnotes and comments: ______________________________

____

. Most usual language of inter-pupil communication outside class is: ______________

ONE sheet per school

Name of school: ______________

____

INSTRUCTIONS

1. List in left-hand column under *subjects* name of subjects taught in the school. For example:

ENGLISH ______
HISTORY ______
GEOGRAPHY ______

2. Starting with the first year described in your program (horizontal list), indicate by grade the language in which the subject is being taught. Use first letter of language in appropriate square: French (F), Spanish (S), English (E), Navajo (N) etc. For example:

ENGLISH	E E E E E
HISTORY	S S E E E
GEOGRAPHY	S S S S S.

3. If both languages are systematically used in alternation (e. g. English + Spanish), indicate thus $\boxed{E/S}$ and explain system in footnote. Do not include casual use of other language by the teacher.

4. If class teaching is in one language (e. g. Spanish) and pupils' schoolbooks in the other, indicate thus $\boxed{\begin{array}{cc} & \boxed{E} \\ S & \end{array}}$

APPENDIX F

SOME FACTS ABOUT BILINGUALISM IN THE UNITED STATES: A SOCIO-HISTORICAL OVERVIEW*

Non-English languages of the continental U.S. are commonly classified into three groups: (2) indigenous languages, (b) colonial languages, and (c) immigrant languages.

1. The indigenous population is estimated to be as great as or greater than when European colonization began in earnest. Nevertheless, many of the original tribes have disappeared entirely. The Federal Government has vacillated between policies oriented toward forced de-tribalization and tribal autonomy. This on-again, off-again treatment has greatly weakened the ability of Indians to retain their languages and their interest in doing so.

Of the nearly 300 separate American Indian languages and dialects extant, only roughly 40 percent have more than 100 speakers. In the case of about 55 percent of these languages, the remaining speakers are of advanced age. These facts imply that many of the languages are destined to disappear as living tongues. Currently, efforts are under way among American Indian organizations to safeguard Indian tribal lands and to strengthen tribal autonomy. These efforts do not include specific emphasis upon language maintenance.

2. Of the colonial languages spoken by 16th, 17th, and 18th century colonizers, English, Spanish, French, and German continued to be spoken in the 19th and 20th centuries, but Russian, Swedish, and Dutch did not survive. Their use in the U.S. today is a result of their re-introduction with immigrant status. Of these languages Spanish has the greatest number of speakers in this country. The ancestry of most Spanish speakers in the United States is not European but Mexican-Indian. To the large indigenous Spanish-speaking population, there have been added in recent years large contingents from Mexico, Puerto Rico, Cuba, and other quota-free Spanish American countries. Thus Spanish has dual colonial-immigrant status.

The situation of French as a colonial language is only superficially similar to that of Spanish. Most Franco-Americans are of post-colonial immigrant stock. German represents a mixture of colonial and immigrant statuses. Although a great variety of German dialects were spoken in colonial days, it is only in connection with several non-prestige variants—commonly called "Pennsylvania Dutch"—that linguistic continuity with colonial times has been maintained. The vast majority of German speakers in the U.S. today are of post-colonial origin.

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*This section, reprinted with permission from Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (1965), is largely adapted from Fishman, et. al., *Language Loyalty in the United States*, prepublication dittoed edition, 1964, and edited by Gaarder (q.v., 1965). Copies of the 1965 Northeast Conference Reports, *Foreign Language Teaching: Challenges to the Profession*, containing a 48-page section on "The Challenge of Bilingualism," may be obtained from the MLA Materials Center, 62 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York. 10011. $3.

3. Any consideration of language maintenance efforts in the U.S. must stress the immigrant languages, since these are the most numerous and their speakers have been exposed to the assimilative forces of American life for the shortest period of time. Mass immigration from Europe lasted from approximately 1880 to 1920. Subsequently, mass immigration has occurred only in the Latin American Spanish-speaking case. Millions of speakers of scores of languages arrived on our shores: peasants and townsmen, illiterates and literati, speakers of prestigious and speakers of officially unrecognized tongues, avowed language loyalists and others who had no particular awareness of their language. They, their children and grandchildren represent a great and largely untapped resource of language teachers and language learners. It is the purpose of this report to examine the nature and extent of these human resources and to suggest programs for activating and developing them.

The question of language loyalty. The Americanization of immigrants has been explained on the basis of irresistible attractiveness of American mass-culture, the destruction of immigrant folkways under the impact of industrialization and urbanization, the openness and ampleness of the American reward system through public education to social mobility, the geographic mobility of our population, which favored adoption of a lingua franca and other equally recent and common cultural denominators, the emphases on childhood and youth and the outdating of adult values and patterns, and even an "Old World weariness" which immigrants purportedly carried with them at a subconscious level. Although the U.S. was born, grew up, and came of age during two centuries in which nationalism reached unsurpassed heights in western history, the vast majority of the millions of immigrants to the U.S. were innocent of nationalistic sentiments or ideologies in their daily lives. Ethnicity of a traditional, particularistic, and non-ideological character—rather than nationalism in its strident and symbolically elaborated manifestations—guided their behavior in most cases. The languages that they spoke were related to the countless acts of everyday life rather than to "causes" or ideologies. Indeed it was only *after* immigration that group and language maintenance sometimes became conscious goals. American "nationalism" has been non-ethnic from the very first. From the days of the Pilgrim fathers American leaders have ideologized morality, opportunity, progress, and freedom. Ethnicity has been considered irrelevant. There was no apparent logical opposition between the ethnicity of nationalism of incoming immigrants and the ideology of America. Individually and collectively immigrants could accept the latter without consciously denying the former. However, acceptance of the goals and values of America placed them on the road to accepting American life-styles, customs, and the English language. Just as there is hardly any ethnic foundation to American nationalism so there is no language awareness in conjunction with the use of English. The English language does not figure prominently in the scheme of values, loyalties, and traditions by which Americans define themselves as "American." Americans have no particular regard for English as an exquisite instrument, no particular concern for its purity, subtlety, or correctness. The fact that so few Americans command any other language than English is largely a result of educational failure, cultural provincialism, and the absence of pragmatic utility for bilingualism, rather than an outgrowth of any conscious attachment to English. Given the lack of ethnic and linguistic awareness roundabout them, the linguistic facility and interest of immigrants steadily diminished or atrophied once they had painlessly and unconsciously accepted the American dream. Anti-foreigner movements (at times, more narrowly anti-Catholic ones) and the opposition to German language and culture during the two World Wars are clearly historical exceptions related to unusual circumstances on the national and international scenes. More normal by far has been the unplanned attrition of minority cultures. More linguistic and cultural treasures were buried and eroded due to mutual permissiveness and apathy than would ever have been the case had repression and opposition been attempted. Immigrant minorities were virtually never forbidden to organize and maintain their own communities, organizations, schools, or publications.

Language loyalty in the U.S. could not but be related to the tenor of American-European relationships, and was at times fanned by the perpetuation on our shores of Old World rivalries and tensions. However, these animosities rarely had more than a brief or intermittent attraction for most immigrants. American social and economic realities were too novel and too inviting and the immigrant populations were too varied and scattered for this aspect of language loyalty to maintain firm footing.

There have always been some immigrants who viewed themselves explicitly as the preservers and saviors of their old country languages and heritages. These language loyalists founded political groups, schools, choral and dramatic societies, and literary and scholarly associations. They established publications at an intellectual level substantially higher than that of the mass-immigrant press or of the mass-English press. They organized societies, institutes, and congresses for the very purpose of linguistic and cultural self-maintenance. All in all, their long-term impact on most immigrant groups was probably negligible. The tradition of struggling for linguistic and cultural self-maintenance is an old one on American shores—even if not a particularly successful one.

To question the wisdom or the necessity or the naturalness of the de-ethnicization of immigrant populations strikes many as questioning the very legitimacy of America's national and cultural existence. Since "Americans" have no ethnic roots in past millennia, as do many other peoples of the world, the Americanizing process itself, i.e., the de-ethnicization of immigrants, takes on a central role in the formation of the national identity and national self-concept of most Americans. Nevertheless, ethnic groups and ethnicity, language loyalty and language maintenance still exist on the American scene. Even Americans of western European origin continue to recognize their ancestry and to partially define themselves in accord with it.

The future of ethnicity and of language maintenance in America is a function of the kind of America we would like to see. It is a problem for Americans of all backgrounds and on all economic levels. The fact that third and subsequent generations frequently continue to think of themselves in partially ethnic terms and frequently maintain positive attitudes and interests with respect to the heritages of their grandparents is a very significant fact about American life, a far more significant one than the fact that acculturation to general American patterns frequently begins in the very first generation. Theoretically, the American melting pot should have been even more successful than it has been. Perhaps the absence of well-defined or deeply-rooted American cultural patterns–which might have been substituted for immigrant cultures–is behind the ultimate failure of the melting pot as much as it is behind its success.

There has been a constant and growing interplay between public Americanization and private ethnicity throughout our brief national existence. The upshot of this process may be that ethnicity is one of the strongest unrecognized facets of American life–in politics, in religion, in consumer behavior, in life-styles, and in self-concepts.

A lack of attention–indeed a repression from awareness–has characterized our reaction to the efforts of minority cultural groups to maintain and develop their particular heritages as vibrant (rather than as ossified or makeshift) lifeways. Only recently has a change of heart and a change of mind become noticeable. It is an open question whether this change represents an instance of "better late than never" or an instance of "too little and too late."

APPENDIX G

A RESOLUTION

Concerning the Education of Bilingual Children
El Paso, Texas, January 1966[1]

On November 13, 1965, over 500 foreign language teachers, school administrators, and other educators met in El Paso at the Second Annual Conference of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers to consider educational problems faced by bilingual children. By an overwhelming majority they voted to approve the recommendations contained in the following resolution:

WHEREAS a disproportionately large number of families of Mexican or American Indian background are among the 35 million Americans who suffer the distress and waste of poverty,

[The per capita median income of 'Anglos' in Texas in 1959 was $4,137, that of Spanish-surname Texans $2,029, according to Harley L. Browning and S. Dale McLemore, "The Spanish-surname Population of Texas," *Public Affairs Comment,* Vol. X, No. 1 (January 1964), The University of Texas, Austin.]

AND WHEREAS the inadequate economic opportunity experienced by these bilinguals is directly related not to a lack of intellectual ability but rather to a school program which, judging by past results, does not develop their full potential,

[According to the Texas Education Agency's *Report of Pupils in Texas Public Schools Having Spanish Surnames,* 1955-1956, August 1957, the average Spanish-surname Texan was at that time spending three years in the first grade and was dropping out of school before reaching the fifth grade (4.7). This compares with 10.8 school years completed by "all whites" (which includes Spanish-surname Texans) and 8.1 by "non-whites" (primarily Negroes and Orientals).]

AND WHEREAS our present educational practices, hampered by widespread misunderstanding of the nature of language and language-learning and of the relation of the mother tongue to a second language, produce bilingual persons who often fail to learn well either their mother tongue or English,

AND WHEREAS language deficiency, both in the mother tongue and in English, is one of the main causes of failure in school and of poverty afterward,

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[1] Newsletter No. 1, Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers (name changed in 1968 to Southwest Council for Bilingual Education.) Address inquiries to P.O. Box 47, University of Texas, El Paso, Texas 79999.

AND WHEREAS we know the importance of the mother tongue both as a medium for concept development and as a means of building confidence and security in children whose English is non-functional,

AND WHEREAS the early acquisition of literacy in the mother tongue is known to facilitate the learning of a second language,

AND WHEREAS our present educational policies, by preventing the full development of the bilingual child, squander language resources which are urgently needed by our Nation and which must be expensively replaced under the National Defense Education Act,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED
that in the interest of our bilingual children and in the public interest a new policy regarding language education be widely adopted in bilingual areas, to wit:

1. That throughout the Southwest, wherever suitable conditions can be provided, schools plan a program of bilingual education in which non-English-speaking children can be given curriculum-wide instruction through the medium of their vernacular in the regular school day, especially in the pre-school and primary years,
2. That effectual instruction in and through the medium of English also be developed, based in the early stages on special techniques for teaching English as a second language,
3. That policies which prohibit the speaking of languages other than English on school premises be reviewed in light of new knowledge concerning the psychology of language and language learning,
4. That in order to relieve the present teacher shortage and to staff future bilingual programs, school districts be urged to make greater efforts to recruit strongly qualified teachers and teacher aides who speak with native fluency the languages of the pupils involved,
5. That schools, colleges, and universities be encouraged to conduct research in bilingual education, to prepare or retrain bilingual teachers, to create instructional materials, and in other ways to collaborate in building a tradition of strong bilingual education,
6. That, recognizing the importance of the mother tongue as a symbol of an inherited culture and as an enrichment of our total culture, all bilingual citizens be encouraged to cultivate their ancestral language as well as the official language, English.

APPENDIX H

QUALIFICATIONS FOR TEACHERS OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES*

Competence	Superior	Good	Minimal
Listening comprehension	Ability to follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech, such as rapid or group conversation and mechanically transmitted speech.	Ability to understand conversation of normal tempo, lectures, and news broadcasts.	Ability to get the sense of what an educated native says when he is making a special effort to be understood and when he is speaking on a general and familar subject.
Speaking	Ability to speak fluently, approximating native speech in vocabulary, intonation, and pronunciation. Ability to exchange ideas and to be at ease in social situations.	Ability to talk with a native without making glaring mistakes, and with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient to express one's thoughts in conversation at normal speed with reasonably good pronunciation.	Ability to read aloud and to talk on prepared topics (e.g. for classroom situations) without obvious faltering, and to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country, speaking with a pronunciation understandable to a native.

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*Reprinted from *Publications of the Modern Language Association of America*, Vol. LXXVII, No. 4, Pt 2 (September, 1962), p. 38.

Qualifications for Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages (cont'd.)

Competence	Superior	Good	Minimal
Reading	Ability to read almost as easily as in English materials of considerable difficulty.	Ability to read with immediate comprehension prose and verse of average difficulty and mature content.	Ability to grasp directly (i.e. without translating) the meaning of simple, nontechnical prose, except for an occasional word.
Writing	Ability to write on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression, and some feeling for the style of the language.	Ability to write a simple "free composition" such as a letter, with clarity and correctness in vocabulary, idiom, and syntax.	Ability to write correctly sentences or paragraphs such as would be developed orally for classroom situations and to write a simple description or message without glaring errors.
Applied Linguistics	The "good" level of competency with additional knowledge of descriptive, comparative, and historical linguistics.	The "minimal" level of competency with additional knowledge of the development and present characteristics of the language.	Ability to apply to language teaching an understanding of the differences in the sound system, forms, and structures of the foreign language and English.

Qualifications for Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages (cont'd.)

Competence	Superior	Good	Minimal
Culture and Civilization	An enlightened understanding of the foreign people and their culture, such as is achieved through personal contact, through travel and residence abroad, through study of literature and the arts.	The "minimal" level of competency with first-hand knowledge of some literary masterpieces and acquaintance with the geography, history, art, social customs, and contemporary civilization of the foreign people.	An awareness of language as an essential element of culture and an understanding of the principal ways in which the foreign culture differs from our own.
Professional Preparation	A mastery of recognized teaching methods, evidence of breadth and depth of professional outlook, and the ability to experiment with and evaluate new methods and techniques.	"Minimal" level of competency plus knowledge of the use of specialized techniques, such as audio-visual aids, and of the relation of language teaching to other areas of the curriculum. Ability to evaluate the professional literature of foreign language teaching.	Knowledge of the present-day objectives of the teaching of foreign languages as communication and an understanding of the methods and techniques for attaining these objectives.

APPENDIX I

GUIDELINES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES*

Recommendations of the Modern Foreign Language Teacher Preparation Study of the Modern Language Association in cooperation with the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification with the support of the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

(The official statement below is addressed to college and university personnel who are engaged in or are planning to engage in programs to prepare teachers of modern foreign languages in American schools. The statement was prepared in a special MLA project directed by F. Andre Paquette. At various stages of development the statement has had the benefit of review and comment by more than 500 members of the foreign language profession, and it has been approved by the MLA Foreign Language Program Advisory Committee. Throughout the project, members of the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification [NASDTEC] provided much helpful professional advice, and the statement carries the formal endorsement of NASDTEC.

A. *The Preparation of the American School Teacher*: The preparation of a teacher in this country usually consists of: general education, courses and experiences which help him become a well-educated person; academic specialization, courses and experiences which help him become proficient in an area of concentration; and professional education, courses and experiences which help him prepare himself as an educator.

The statement which follows is concerned only with academic specialization and professional education. It is intended to define the role of the modern foreign language teacher, to state the minimal competence which should be provided by a training program, and to characterize such a program.

B. *The Modern Foreign Language Teacher in American Schools*: The teacher of a modern foreign language in American schools is expected to:

1. Develop in students a progressive control of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing).
2. Present the language as an essential element of the foreign culture and show how that culture is similar to and different from that of the United States.

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* Reprinted from *Publications of the Modern Language Association of America*, Vol. LXXXI, No. 2 (May 1966), pp. A-2, A-3.

3. Present the foreign literature in such a way as to bring the students to understand it and to appreciate its values.

4. Make judicious selection and use of approaches, methods, techniques, aids, material, and equipment for language teaching.

5. Correlate his teaching with that in other areas.

6. Evaluate the progress and diagnose the deficiencies of student performance.

C. *Minimal Objectives for a Teacher Education Program in Modern Foreign Languages*:** The program to prepare a beginning modern foreign language teacher must provide him with the opportunity to develop:

1. Ability to understand conversation at normal tempo, lectures, and news broadcasts.

2. Ability to talk with a native with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient to express his thoughts in conversation at normal speed with reasonably good pronunciation.

3. Ability to read with immediate comprehension prose and verse of average difficulty and mature content.

4. Ability to write a simple "free composition," such as a letter or message, with clarity and correctness in vocabulary, idiom, and syntax.

5. An understanding of the differences between the sound systems, forms, and structures of the foreign language and of English and ability to apply this understanding to modern foreign language teaching.

6. An awareness of language as an essential element of culture and an understanding of the principal ways in which the foreign culture differs from our own. Firsthand knowledge of some literary masterpieces and acquaintance with the geography, history, art, social customs, and contemporary civilization of the foreign people.

7. Knowledge of the present day objectives of modern foreign language teaching as communication, and an understanding of the methods and techniques for attaining these objectives. Knowledge of the use of specialized techniques, such as educational media, and of the relation of modern language study to other areas of the curriculum. Ability to evaluate the professional literature of modern foreign language teaching.

D. *Features of a Teacher Education Program in Modern Foreign Languages*: An institution that seeks approval of its modern foreign language teacher education program accepts the responsibility for demonstrating that its program provides students with the opportunity to acquire the competences named above. It is characterized by the features listed below.

1. The institution has a clearly formulated policy concerning admission to, retention in, and completion of the program. The statement of this policy includes precise information about when and how to apply for admission to the program and what criteria are used in

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** Based on the "Good" level of the "Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXIX (Nov. 1955), as revised in Wilmarth H. Starr, "MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students," *PMLA*, LXXVII (Sept. 1962, Part 2), 38.

screening applicants; it states the minimal achievement required for successful completion of the program and it indicates when, how, and by what professional criteria students are eliminated from the program. A printed statement of this policy is available to all who request it.

2. The institution evaluates the previous language experience of all applicants for admission to the institution as well as that of applicants to the modern foreign language teacher education program through the use of proficiency tests in the four language skills. It uses the results of such evaluation for student placement in modern foreign language instruction.

3. In order to provide candidates of varied backgrounds with the opportunity to achieve at least the level of "Good" in the seven areas of competence outlined in Section C above, the institution offers, or provides by special arrangement, instruction in:

a. The four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing). This instruction includes regular and extensive exposure to several varieties of native speech through teachers, lecturers, native informants, or mechanically reproduced speech, and exposure to several varieties of the written language through books, newspapers, magazines, documents, etc.

b. The major work of the literature. This instruction is largely or entirely in the foreign language.

c. Other aspects of the culture and civilization. The instruction includes the study of the geography, history, and contemporary civilization.

d. Language analysis, including a study of the phonology, morphology, and syntax of the modern foreign language and comparison of these elements with those of American English.

e. Professional education, including a study of the social foundations and the organization of public education in the United States, human growth and development, learning theory, and curriculum organization, including the place of foreign languages in the curriculum.

f. Methods of teaching modern foreign languages. A study of approaches to, mothods of, and techniques to be used in teaching a modern foreign language. There is instruction in the use of the language laboratory and other educational media.

4. The institution provides an opportunity for systematic, supervised observation of a variety of modern foreign language teaching situations of differing quality in elementary and secondary schools, at beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels of instruction, in classroom and language laboratory.

5. The institution provides student-teaching experience under expert supervision in which the candidate can demonstrate his actual or potential ability to be a modern foreign language teacher.

6. The institution has a staff whose combined competences are superior to the level of instructional proficiencies which are the objectives of the program. The teachers of the methods courses and the classroom teachers (cooperating teachers) who supervise the student teaching are experienced foreign language teachers and are themselves proficient at least at the level of "Good" in the seven areas of competence. In addition, the cooperating teachers are interested in having student teachers work under their supervision.

7. The institution maintains a curriculum library containing the materials and equipment commonly used in teaching modern foreign languages in elementary and secondary schools.

8. The institution provides all students of modern foreign languages with such opportunities for reinforcement of their classroom learning as a language laboratory, foreign films, plays, and lectures; language reading and listening rooms with books, periodicals, records, and tapes; language houses and language tables.

9. The institution, if it does not have its own program outside the United States, calls to the attention of all foreign language majors specific foreign study programs which have been carefully selected.

10. A candidate's achievement in the seven areas of competence is evaluated through appropriate tests, his teaching skill is appraised by experts, and the results of the evaluation and appraisal are available for advising him in his continuing education and for recommending, licensing, and employing him. His readiness to teach is certified in the name of the whole institution. An official designated to make such certification is able to demonstrate that he has received information about the candidate from all units in the institution concerned with the candidate's preparation.

APPENDIX J

FROM EGYPT TO AMERICA: A MULTILINGUAL'S STORY

Editors' Note: This autobiography was prepared on request and, as the cover note shows, with some reluctance. The modest author is ninteen years of age and at different stages of his life has mastered four languages. For purposes of reproduction here we have abridged the text slightly, and occasionally tampered with the punctuation. Otherwise, it is untouched. It stands, in our opinion, as a monument to his control over English, his fourth language. The cover note reads thus:

> Dr. Andersson,
>
> This is my epic, thrilling, breathtaking, heartbreaking autobiography. As I did not know exactly what you wanted, I stuffed it with many details that you might or you might not find of interest and relevance. Much more can be added and much can be crossed out. As you suggested, I loathe talking about myself, so I would like for the paper to be anonymous, for this and other reasons, although all that I said is perfectly true.
>
> Cordially,
>
> (Signature withheld)

I am a multilingual. Born and raised in Cairo, Egypt, where my family was settled for over two generations, I am also a Jewish citizen of Italy, a native speaker of French, and a prospective American. With this diversified background, I can justly claim to be international and not to belong to any specific culture, for which I am proud since I firmly believe that to be identified with a people makes one prone to succumb to the ill effects of nationalism and fanaticism which are all too often the cause of regrettable clashes between people and are to be accounted for countless bloody and useless wars.

I wish to tell my story primarily in order to show that the knowledge of several languages cannot but have a beneficent influence on an individual's life and will in no way hamper his talents and aptitudes in other fields but will on the contrary intensify them and stimulate his intellectual activity and potential by broadening his view upon the world we live in, allowing him to express himself better, and making him aware of the fact that there exist other cultures which are as fascinating and useful as his own.

A brief history of my family will better describe my origin. We are Sephardic Jews, that is descendants of the Israelites who lived in Spain until they were driven out of the country in 1492, and have lived in Mediterranean countries ever since. On my father's side, my grandfather was born in the island of Rhodes, and my grandmother in the nearby island of

Salonica. When they got married, my grandfather, who was a tradesman, decided to settle down in Egypt, which was at that time (1900) a very active and prosperous country and was regarded by many as a land of opportunities. They used to speak several languages with equal fluency, as multilingualism is a very marked characteristic of Middle-Easterns. Among these were Turkish, Greek, Arabic, and French. But Spanish, or a dialect of it called Ladino, was the language most currently used in their rapidly expanding family.

Nine children were born to them, six boys and three girls, of which my father, born in 1903, is the eldest. They had no specific nationality at that time as identification, travel, and citizenship documents were not of common usage. But as time passed, they were asked to opt for a definite nationality. Since the islands they came from were under Italian domination at that time, they chose to become officially Italian citizens and were issued passport and citizenship certificates by the Counsulate. The number of Europeans in Egypt was then considerably large and they owned the major natural resources of the country, thus holding the reins of its economy, which was therefore virtually in foreign hands. The British Empire had a protectorate over Egypt and several bases for armed forces, and owned the Suez Canal. This made Cairo a sort of international community with a wide variation of juxtaposed ethnic groups, each one having its own life, cultural events, schools, churches, and characteristical activities, and the knowledge of *any* specific language or set of languages was not required for leading a normal life in the country. This is one of the chief reasons why the average Egyptian-born of Cairo was always at least bilingual.

My father, uncles, and aunts were therefore sent to Italian State Public Schools; but the French influence in the city was so overwhelmingly strong (as the French are known to be excellent propagators of their own culture) that this language did not take long to play a leading role in their lives. It was regarded as the language of the elite and knowing it was an unmistakable sign of being educated. They all subsequently left the country and were literally scattered all over the world: they now live in Italy, France, Belgium, Spain, Venezuela, Brazil, to name only a few. We do not exactly lack cosmopolitanism in our family!

My mother's native language is Arabic. Her father, also a tradesman, came from Syria and knew only Arabic and Hebrew. She received her formal education in a French school. Then, when she married my father, it seemed natural that French be adopted as the means of communication, since it was the only language that they knew in common well enough to make it their own. Their children, two boys and two girls, of which I am the youngest, were unilingual in their early years and French was their vernacular. Consequently, the latter slowly became the language of our family and the only one spoken in our house.

When my sisters grew up to school age, my father decided that it would be advisable for them to receive their education through the English language, as a British uncle of his exerted pressure upon him to that effect. The increasing anglicization of Egypt and the arrival of new contingents of British armed forces every day to face the threat of Rommel's advancing Nazi troops made them believe that one day English would be the only language used in the country by the power holders. Therefore, after a year in a French preschool (Jabès) they were sent to an Irish nuns school, Alvernia English Convent School, from kindergarten to the seventh grade, then to St. Clare's College from the eighth grade till they matriculated.

After the second World War was over my father changed his mind and decided that we should be educated in our own mother tongue. Besides, the French *lycées* had a reputation of being excellent institutions of learning and the French curriculum of being utterly superior, in shape and in content, to the others in function at that time. Consequently, my older sister, after getting her Oxford degree, spent three years in the French *lycée* of Bab el Luk and brilliantly obtained her baccalaureate in 1952. My younger sister was stubbornly determined to go on studying in English and convinced my father to let her complete her education at the American University in Cairo, from where she graduated with a B.A. degree in 1956. She is the only member of our family to have received a totally unilingual education.

My brother, since he started going to school in 1945, was educated entirely in French, used French curricula, and took exams sent directly from France in the same *lycée*. He also learned Latin, English, and Arabic, which were taught as foreign languages. When he graduated in 1959 and obtained his baccalaureate in Mathematics, there was no place in Egypt for him to go and pursue further studies in French, and he could not leave as he was not allowed to take any money with him, so he had to apply at the University of Cairo, in the Faculty of Engineering, where the media of instruction were Arabic and English, the latter being used because very few textbooks were in Arabic and most professors had received their degrees from English or American universities. The psychological shock due to the abrupt change was great and detrimental. He spent six years in this institution where he had an enormous trouble in assimilating and integrating himself and always felt alienated. This dreadful experience has had permanent ill effects on his mind and personality.

As for myself, the story is longer and more diversified. I had spent three years in the *lycée*, from kindergarten to grade two, when, on the night of October 26, 1956, Egypt was at war. France, Great Britain, and Israel attacked Egypt simultaneously, as a consequence of new President Nasser's decision to nationalize the Suez Canal and place its administration under the authority of his government. Within the week that followed the outbreak of hostilities, all French and English citizens were expelled overnight from the country and their property was confiscated. All the French private schools had been consequently closed, including mine, so that when the situation went back to normal the problem was to find a school where I would be admitted. It did not take long for my father to decide that, as an Italian child, I would be sent to an Italian school. The best one was the Scuola Italiana di Stato a Bulacco, an institution under the direct supervision and sponsorhip of the Italian consulate. The children attending this school, the teachers, and the administrators were exclusively part of the Italian community of Cairo and Italian was the only language used, although the importance of knowing other languages was stressed since the very early grades, since French *and* English *and* Arabic were all taught one hour (or two) a week, at least in the two grades (two and three) which I attended there. Surprisingly enough, even though I did not know a single word of Italian when I went to class the first day, I never felt like a stranger. The teacher paid special attention to me and did not hesitate to use what little French she knew with me whenever she thought that I hadn't understood what she had said, and my classmates were extremely friendly. They would let me participate in all their games, invite me over to their places, and would never laugh at my difficulty in expressing myself in Italian. In this welcoming and warm atmosphere, it did not take me more than three months to speak the language with no accent at all and understand it fairly well. At the end of the first year, I could speak Italian most fluently and had many Italian friends; to the point that there was no way of distinguishing me from them as far as background was concerned. Since on the other hand French was constantly used at home because my father and I were the only Italian speakers, at this stage of my life I was perfectly bilingual.

The second year at the Scuola Italiana passed without any problem: not only was I fluent and proficient, but I also proved to be an excellent student in all subjects. My father supervised me closely in my schoolwork and often spoke to me in Italian, always trying to make me feel that after all I was Italian myself like all the other children around me and that except maybe for a minor difference in religion I belonged to their world and was not an outsider, and this encouraged me very much. Never again in my life did I ever feel so close to Italy, my supposed homeland that I have never seen. From that time until I left Egypt several years later, I kept flooding the house with Italian publications that I used to read and reread endlessly with everlasting interest. Especially during those longer summers in Cairo, I used to spend days and days doing nothing but reading Italian magazines like *Corriere dei Piccoli, Albi del Falco, Albi della Rosa, la Settimana Enigmistica, Intrepido*, etc., some of which were just translations of American comics, thus giving me an early insight into American life and history. Very often I would go into Italian crossword competitions with my father, and the constant search for words added a great deal to my knowledge of the language. In brief, Italian has played an important role in my life since then.

After two years at the Italian school, members of my family insisted that my father send me back to the French *lycée* which had reopened in the meantime. The Egyptian authorities had placed the *lycée* under their administration and decided that it should be progressively converted into an Arab school. The name was changed to Lycée La Liberté, then to Lycée Al Horreya, and there were no more French teachers. The latter were replaced by educated Egyptian bilinguals, most of whom had a European background and were themselves products of French schools. Little by little the French textbooks were eliminated in favor of either the Arabic textbooks used in the public schools or mimeographed handouts and rough paperbacks in French hastily prepared by local teachers, many of whom did not hesitate to plagiarize ignominiously those banned and rejected French books. The curriculum was agreed upon to be identical in content to that of Egyptian public schools. The languages of instruction would be both French and Arabic depending on the grade, the subject, and the year. However, in senior high school, the students would choose between an Arabic Section (in which Arabic would be the exclusive medium of instruction and where French and English would be taught as second languages) and a French-Arabic Section (in which both languages would be used). The latter operated therefore according to a perfect bilingual program. Both sections were subdivided into a Literature and a Science subsection. The examinations were officially issued by the Egyptian Ministry of Education, and translated into French when the subject was taught in French. As an example, in the tenth grade French-Arabic (Science) section, History, Geography and Civics, Biology and Geology, Art, Philosophy, and Arabic Literature were taught in Arabic whereas Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and French Literature and Civilization were taught in French. Intermediate English was taught as a foreign language according to a program of teaching English to native speakers of Arabic. Spontaneously and not because of some school policy, only the language in which the subject was taught was spoken in class.

Thus in October 1958 I went back to the school I had left two years earlier, and it seemed so different that I had difficulty recognizing it. During my first year there (*huitième,* i.e. fifth grade) everything was taught in French but the importance given to Arabic as a subject was disproportionately great. Most of the students were native speakers [of Arabic] and therefore the required level of proficiency was relatively high, and as a matter of fact was the same as that in the Egyptian public schools in the corresponding grade. But unlike in the Italian school, I always felt that the attitude of the teachers and the students toward the foreign element in the class was one of scorn and condescendence as a reaction sprung from the awareness of their recently acquired political and economic freedom. The atmosphere was markedly hostile. Yet I knew that since for many complicated reasons I had to remain in the country for an indefinite period of time as no specific plans for the future were made yet, I *had* to learn Arabic by all means. After the revolution that overthrew the monarchic regime, outbursts of Arab nationalism led the authorities to accelerate the process of de-europeanizing all schools in the country, and drastic measures were taken to spread out the language throughout the republic and make its knowledge a *sine qua non* for leading normal life in the community.

Be it as it may, my first days in this school were a nightmare and the shock was tremendous. I knew but very little of the language and could barely decipher it. My father hired a private tutor knowing French who would come twice a week to give me the basic intensive training that I badly needed. But since the approach to Arabic was fallacious from the very beginning due to the fact that I was forced to learn it against my will, I came to hate this language with all my strength and regret all those endless days I had to spend trying to "swallow," slowly and patiently, Arabic grammar, Arabic poems, the history of the Arab world, the principles of Arab democracy, and all those thick and boring volumes of Arabic literature, much of which was filled with antisemitic and anti-occidental propaganda. The fact that I was periodically forced to write political themes against my people, against my race, and against my values, or blaspheme aloud during frequent oral examinations, aroused my anger to its paroxysm. As outburst of violence and open revolt were not permitted to me for obvious reasons, this only added to my isolation and alienation from my environment. My only relief and consolation came from the fact that I knew that this situation would not last eternally, that it was only a transient, temporary state that I should regard merely as a useful experience, and that it preceded the time when I would be free—free to develop my full potential without constraint, free to do whatever I wanted, and not having to learn a loathed language belonging to a people hostile to me and whose constant psychological persecution shook my nerves and resulted in a permanent feeling of anxiety and insecurity which has never left me since. Besides, constant outstanding scholastic achievement in every subject regardless of the medium of instruction made me feel superior and look down, deep in my heart (since I could not show it), at this mass of fanatics who were attempting to force me to reject my ethnic, cultural, and religious heritage and who succeeded only in adding to my determination to preserve it at all costs.

Patience became the catchword. I spent eight years in the bilingual school. Since the importance of Arabic in it increased with every passing year to the detriment of French, I grew to be fluent and proficient in it and did not have any trouble at all following the courses. But I must add that I was always reluctant to use this language and did not do it unless I absolutely had to. Therefore I voluntarily never acquired mastery of it because I never cared to and it repelled me. This brings me to an important conclusion that I wish to emphasize: a person cannot, under any circumstances, be forced to learn a language and make his own if he does not want to and is strongly determined to resist, no matter how overpowering external pressures seem to be.

When I came to be the equivalent of a high school junior, an unexpected opportunity presented itself: the French Cultural Center, which had recently reopened its doors, had decided to give the equivalent of French *lycée* courses, for all grades starting from the seventh, to all foreign (non-Egyptian) students who would be interested. I could hardly believe it and yet it was true! My very last year in school would be spent in an utterly French school, where real French curricula would be used, and I would end up having not an equivalent of but *the* original French baccalaureate, the supreme diploma I had always dreamt of obtaining. I can truthfully say that the following year, embellished as it was by an enchanting romantic adventure, was the most unforgettable of my life yet, and the relief that I felt was comparable in intensity only to the shock I had experienced eight years earlier when I entered the bilingual school. I had the impression that I was slowly awakening from a long nightmare. The students were almost exclusively French or native speakers, and the teachers were all French. I participated actively in many of their cultural events, made several friends, studied hard but willingly in the language I loved, and eventually, on the eighth of June, 1967, when the six-day war opposing the Arab countries to their sworn enemy Israel was still raging in the sands of the Sinai desert, I received my baccalaureate with highest honors, having obtained nearly the maximum grade in both oral and written examinations, whereas as much as 60 percent of all the students registered for this set of tests, in France and throughout the world, were to fail that year.

It did not take me long to come back to the crude reality when the academic year was over: the humiliation of defeat pushing the Egyptian authorities to seek revenge on defenseless civilians, the situation of the few remaining Jews in Egypt became extremely precarious. My parents and I (sole members of our whole family left in Egypt) were saved from direct persecution by the mere fact that we were nationals of a foreign country and were therefore under the immediate protection of our consulate. At that time my brother-in-law, an American attorney, was feverishly working at obtaining U.S. emergency immigrant visas for us. When they were finally issued, a few days after the open war was over, my father refused them as his pride forbad him to have to depend on anybody, even his own children, after having worked incessantly all his life to be financially independent, and as his age and health would not allow him to start a completely new life from scratch in a foreign country. My visa was not valid without them so I had to leave Egypt, alone and penniless, with no hope of ever going back. After a short visit with my uncle in Brussels, I was issued a refugee visa allowing me to stay two years in the U.S. as a "conditional entrant," before applying for permanent residence and then citizenship.

Finally, I left the old world for the new and landed in New York on the 26th of February, 1968, ready to start a new chapter of my life: eighteen years in a prison were gone, buried and forgotten. At long last, I was entirely FREE!

The first problem that I had to face was the language barrier. The latter had to be overthrown by all means as soon as possible as I was planning to complete my education in a major university where I had been admitted. I had but a theoretical, bookish knowledge of English, mainly acquired through personal reading, and the more I learned about this language the more fascinating and fertile I found it, so that my interest in it never ceased to grow. As I started to realize that the United States was such an overwhelmingly unilingual country in which the ability to communicate in English was of primary importance, I was somewhat frightened as I had never used that language in everyday life. But I took this temporary inability as a challenge and decided that the only way to learn a language is to speak it constantly, read as much as possible in it, think in it, and associate with its native speakers regardless of the frustrations resulting from the inevitable and often hilarious mistakes, or from the difficulty of finding the right words at the right time. This feeling of incompleteness arising from one's inability to express one's thoughts in perfectly structured, grammatically correct, understandable sentences in a foreign language is what worried me most. But I overcame it; and the method seemed to have good results, for within a few months I was satisfactorily fluent and felt so much at ease in English that language was no longer a handicap. But I purposefully avoid to use in conversation those few French words that have been incorporated untouched in the English language: I can't pronounce them the American way! I still have an accent of which time will hopefully get rid. Since I started taking courses, I am a straight-A student, at which I am the first to be surprised considering that I never studied in English before. Now a year has passed since I stepped foot in this friendly and welcoming Land of Freedom, and my fears are of a totally different nature: I am afraid that as time passes the americanizing pressures within the melting pot will eventually erase the linguistic knowledge from my mind leaving me American and unilingual, as happened to my nieces!

An educator will retain from my story that throughout my school-life four languages have been used as media for my instruction without my academic achievement having in the least suffered from the various "switches". This is the reason why I insisted so much on it: it is most remarkable that my intelligence, talents and creativity have not been altered in any way (unless they have been stimulated) by my acquired knowledge of several languages. It is my firm conviction that multilingualism is a gratuitous asset that anybody can obtain if he cares to and works at it early enough. It is the key to tolerance and understanding between cultures, and from there to freedom and peace.

APPENDIX K

SPANISH–SPEAKERS IN THE UNITED STATES: MEXICAN AMERICANS, PUERTO RICANS, AND CUBANS

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I. Mexican American: La Raza
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  - Demographic Data
  - Historical Sketch
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  - Educational Failure
  - Possible Sources of Educational Failure
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I. LA RAZA

Introduction

Although the Spanish-speaking community has suffered decades of poverty, discrimination, and alienation from the larger society, every member of La Raza (The Race) sees himself as belonging to a sort of chosen people, with a glorious destiny. His self-concept is molded by his dual position as citizen of the United States and as member of his ethnic group. The cultural and spiritual bonds of La Raza are said to be derived from God and are taken to be divine and infinite; they are the source of his strength. According to these views, any failure to achieve the heights of possibility within this context is due to the sins of the individual member of the group.[1] Of all Spanish-speakers, it is the Mexican Americans who identify themselves most closely with this concept.

This paper will focus on a few problems, distinct from individual sin, which have helped to abort the dreams of La Raza. Limitations in scope are imposed by the great number of perspectives that would be necessary to cover the subject completely. There is a voluminous and relatively adequate literature on the history, demography, problems, and education of the Mexican American, and we invite the reader to consult our bibliography for further suggestions in pursuing the subject. It is hoped merely that this paper will serve as a reminder of some of the crucial issues, a spur to further investigation, and an indication of our cognizance of the fact that education for this large non-English-speaking group is desperately in need of reform.

Demographic Data

Estimates of the total number of Spanish-speakers in the United States run from about four million to ten. Approximately 80 percent of the total live in the five states of the Southwest (Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas) and constitute about 12 percent of this area's total population. According to the 1960 census (whose figures were based on surname), of the total Southwest Spanish-surname population, 82.1 percent are located in California and Texas, with California having a slightly higher actual number.[2] Nevertheless, New Mexico has a higher *proportion* of minority speakers than any other state[3]–about 40 percent[4]. New Mexican Spanish-speakers call themselves Spanish Americans and trace their Spanish heritage back to the 16th century. Even though the rise in population in the Southwest has been general, the figures show an estimated increase of 80 percent in the number of Spanish-speakers alone from 1940 to 1960. The 1960 census reveals the cities with the largest number of Spanish-surname individuals to be Los Angeles, El Paso, and San Antonio. With the exception of some of the Indian groups (particularly the Navajo), birth rate and immigration figures for the Spanish-speaking indicate the largest population increase of any minority group in the United States.

Historical Sketch

By 1521 the conquest of the Aztec empire was completed by the Spanish *conquistadores.* The 16th and 17th centuries were then marked by expeditions into what is now the

American Southwest by such adventurers as Cabeza de Vaca and Coronado. It was in New Mexico that the first permanent Spanish settlement of this area was made, with the discovery of silver in Zacatecas in 1548. This was more than 50 years before the English settlers reached our eastern shores. Santa Fe was established in 1609, two years after the English first settled in Virginia. The first permanent Texas settlement (1690) was also made by the Spaniards, this time not for silver but for fear of a French invasion. For approximately three centuries Spanish was thus the dominant tongue of the rulers of the Southwest. This period ended around the mid-nineteenth century:

> *...by 1833 Spain has been driven out of the New World and the Southwest was governed by the Republic of Mexico, but the United States moved swiftly onto the scene. In an almost bloodless conquest in 1846, General Stephen W. Kearne occupied the area, urging the residents–in their native Spanish–not to resist. When the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo assigned the Mexican Cession to the United States in 1848, its predominantly Spanish-speaking inhabitants became citizens of a new nation.*[5]

At this point the power shifted from the Spanish-speaking majority to the English-speaking minority, and those who had fought on the Mexican side (not all Spanish-speakers did) became a conquered people and second class citizens. English speakers who commanded a Spanish-speaking labor force were not blind to the darker skins of their workers, and at that time the social and economic base of Texas was much like that of the Southeast, i.e., centered around white supremacy.

Southwestern settlement and colonization patterns were not all the same in terms of isolation, numbers, and kinds of social structures, but there were elements common to all which led to the formation of an agrarian folk culture among the Spanish-speaking–a culture ill-equipped to cope with the competitive technological society so soon to blossom around it. In an English ruled territory, most Spanish speakers did not blossom in the same way.

> *Only the vestiges of a once highly literate Spanish culture could survive the rigors of the Southwest; what remained might best be described as a folk society in which, by necessity, the main concern was with elemental needs–the maintenance of life itself–and only a very few relatively wealthy individuals could afford the luxury of literacy or education in the formal sense.*[6]

The fact that those who first settled the area were working too hard at mere existence to cultivate the rich mine of Hispanic tradition; that after 1848 some of them found themselves without land; that they received the poorest jobs, wages, housing, services, and schools; that Texas, in particular, was geared to a slave-holding society in which color was taken as a mark of inferiority; all these factors contributed to starting the vicious circle of poverty and discrimination which has continued up to the present day.

Immigrant and Migrant Laborers

The stereotyping of the Mexican American as lowest class, poor, and illiterate has been reinforced through American history by the thousands of immigrant and/or migrant laborers who have traveled about the United States in greater and lesser numbers, depending on the labor force needs and, more recently, on the wage scale conflict centered in the border states. Until 1910 there was only a trickle of legal and illegal ("wetback") Mexican immigration. The largest numbers came in a wave between 1910 and 1930. Fifteen percent of all Mexicans who have come to date immigrated into this country during the 1920's, owing to the Mexican Revolution and to the expanding agricultural opportunities of that period in the United States. By the 1930's the percentage of those born in Mexico had grown significantly in all five Southwestern states. After 1949, such laborers were employed under Public Law 78; but since its abolishment on December 31, 1964, they, like workers of other countries, enter under the Immigration and Nationality Act, which provides for the importation of foreign workers if like workers are not available in the United States. The migrant force today–both native and immigrant–remains sizeable, although it fluctuates with the demand.

Educational Failure

Seventy-five percent of all Mexican American children of school age are enrolled in school, but the number in high school is only one-third what it should be on the basis of population. In New Mexican schools, of 60,000 Spanish-speakers enrolled, over one-third are in the first grade. (One wonders how many years they spend there.) More than one-half are in the first three grades and 55 percent of those above first grade are more than two years over-age for their level.[7] In Texas, among Mexican American children entering the first grade, about 80 percent are not promoted.[8] The average for Mexican Americans 14 years of age and older in the Southwest is only about 8 years of schooling compared with 12 for the average Anglo-American. The dropout rate is over twice the national average. As Thomas P. Carter has said, "We have not taken very good care of some of our children."[9]

Possible Sources of Educational Failure

Even a cursory glance at the literature on the subject brings failures and complexities into focus. The main conflicts appear to derive from economic, cultural, and sociological factors. As outlined by Brussell,[10] there appear to be five broad areas of difficulty: (1) spatial separateness; (2) sterotypes and discrimination; (3) cultural differences, including value orientations; (4) language difference and the school experience; and (5) rate of acculturation. To these categories we would like to add a sixth: the culture of poverty as it relates to the Spanish-speaking. Although none of those categories can, in reality, be considered in isolation, this type of breakdown can be useful for purposes of discussion.

(1) Spatial Separateness

Communication lines between Spanish-speakers and the dominant culture have been marked throughout United States history by failure and apathy. Both a cause and an effect of this has been physical separation of the Mexican American and Anglo groups. Urbanization and industrialization have brought more Mexican Americans into urban enclaves called *barrios* or *colonias*, usually in the older and more neglected part of town. Some of the possible causes of enclave formation are poverty, discrimination, language barriers, the large family structure, occupational patterns, a feeling of hostility toward Anglos, and insecurity in interacting with them. This, of course, leads to *de facto* segregation in the schools, a slow rate of acculturation, and isolation from social and governmental services; in other words, a perpetuation of low scholastic achievement, continued poverty, and second-class citizenship. Nevertheless, enclaves also yield certain positive results, including language maintenance, a sense of belonging, and security in a non-hostile environment.

A different type of spatial separateness affects the migrant workers. Owing to the high mobility of this group, all the negative factors mentioned above converge to perpetuate a low level of academic, social, and economic achievement. For the children, there is no continuity in education. They miss about one-third of the school year, and state school laws are frequently not applicable to children whose residence is not fixed.

(2) Stereotypes and Discrimination

The problem of stereotyping has seemed to work three ways in this ethnic conflict. Research studies have noted Anglo stereotyping based on decades of discriminatory practices against Mexican Americans. Discrimination can take many forms. John Burma attempts a synthesis of factors in the case in point:

> *For one thing, Mexicans are often dark, and darkness of skin was already a badge of alleged inferiority before most Mexicans came upon the scene. Second, they are predominantly poor, and so suffer from class discrimination. Third, their culture is different, and hence is looked upon as inferior. Fourth, they are Catholic in a predominantly Protestant country. Fifth, theirs is a different language, and when used in public it accentuates differences and may make Anglos feel excluded, fear insult, and so forth. In addition to these facts there are a number of fairly common charges, no one of which is correct and all of which are somewhat commonly accepted. For example: "Mexicans are clannish." "Family life and morals among Mexicans are both different and lower." "Mexicans live only for the day, lack drive, energy and foresight." "Mexicans are childish, improvident, given to producing too many children and getting drunk too often." Actually, few Anglos know anything of what goes on in the barrio....*[11]

Naturally the Mexican American is confused and intimidated. He has very little tangible to fight. Ruth D. Tuck puts it well: "Rather than having the job of battering down a wall, the Mexican American finds himself entangled in a spider web, whose outlines are difficult to see but whose clinging, silken strands hold tight."[12]

But the Mexican Americans also indulge in this human yet inhumane categorizing, deeming Anglos "braggarts, conceited, inconstant, insincere, mercenary, exploitative, and unkind."[13]

The third type of stereotyping is the Spanish-speakers' own self-image—the way they have been "taught" to view themselves. There is a broad tendency on the part of Mexican Americans to concede the superiority of Anglo ways and to regard themselves as inferior and incapable of advancement.

The problem is aggravated by the fact that there are few leaders or models of success which they can follow. Their society dictates that those who succeed in the Anglo culture are then to be considered "traitors" by the rest of the Mexican American community. And those who succeed are the ones most convinced of the efficacy of Anglicizing as quickly as possible, of cutting themselves off from their cultural roots.

(3) Cultural Differences, Including Value Orientations

Under this heading there are several categories mentioned by Brussell, but five of these seem to be the most comprehensive and helpful in determining where the two cultures conflict: (a) traditionalism (b) familism (c) paternalism (d) personalism, and (e) fatalism. Although any drawing together and "boxing-up" of this kind runs a heavy risk of distortion and oversimplification, and although these characteristics may vary according to generation, location, background, and other individual circumstances, a basic understanding of these widely accepted culture concepts can perhaps help reduce the possibility of misunderstanding.

(a) Traditionalism

Mexican American society is based on folk culture, that is, group history and beliefs are transmitted orally down through the generations. Although now largely an urban population, this society has held on to its traditionally rural folk culture, seen most clearly in beliefs regarding illness and cures. While other culture characteristics are crucial, it is the strong sense of traditionalism which makes the others so binding. Mexican Americans are hesitant to give up the old unless the new offers a clear and workable alternative. Anglo culture on the other hand assumes the possibility of progress through change, with an entire technology based on this premise. For the school this difference has repercussions on goals, the idea of efficiency, and the whole realm of life-style, which teachers attempt to inculcate.

(b) Familism

The Mexican American family is a large but tightly knit organization. Each member has a role well defined by sex, age, and kinship relation. Sons are expected to show respect for their elders and to be protectors of the younger members; the feminine role is totally family-oriented. For the Mexican American obligation to the family colors every outside endeavor—relationship with friends, the teacher, and other members of society. If the teacher believes one way and parents another, respect for parents traditionally requires that their judgment prevail. The male has obligations stretching further than his immediate family; thus any economic success he achieves rarely gives him opportunity for social ascent. His funds are merely spread further. Once again, before loyalty to a system or before education comes loyalty to the family.

(c) Paternalism

This culture trait is seen in the superordination of the male sex. His prestige increases as he demonstrates his abilities as head of the household. *Machismo* is also part of this masculine role, though understandings of its meaning differ.

> *The male in Hispanic culture is an explorer and conqueror—of ideas, of lands, and of women. He functions as a unit which defies categorization. He is both a Cortés and a Quijote.*[14]

So say one pair of authors. But in the view of José Cárdenas, research on the social characteristics of Mexican Americans has frequently led to misunderstandings and misinterpretations.

> *Nowhere is this more evident than in the typical and erroneous interpretation of the* machismo *concept which is...presented as almost synonymous to sexual promiscuity.*[15]

(d) Personalism

Related to certain aspects of *machismo,* the family orientation, and fatalism is the Spanish speaker's feeling about personal interaction. Rather than responding to a man in terms of his social or economic position, Mexican Americans react to and judge him as a whole being, as an individual.

> *He is first of all a man, and only secondarily a storekeeper, a mechanic, or even a lawyer or physician; the role is not promoted at the expense of the man. This leaves him at a distinct disadvantage in economic competition with the Anglo, but he will get his satisfactions from being ruler in his own family, and master of his own personal destiny.*[16]

A reflection of this can be seen in their strong personal obligations and attachments to family and friends. On the political level also they tend to react toward a candidate not on the basis of abstract principles or group necessity, but rather on a strictly human or individual basis. Anglo culture is much more group oriented, more geared toward identification in terms of a social or economic role, and more abstract.

> *While Anglos emphasize individual initiative, it is a socialized initiative calling for self-expression within certain limits. The Spanish-speaking individual may transcend these limits, and, emphasizing the elements of personalism, place loyalty on an individual basis.*[17]

(e) Fatalism

Religion, folk culture, and economics have all had their part in making Mexican Americans deterministic in their orientation. They believe themselves to be subject to nature in a world in which everything is God's will, in which hardships and difficulties are adjusted to, rather than overcome. In this culture the fortune of the individual is predestined, and acceptance is the means by which the individual copes.

This concept is tied very strongly to Mexican American ideas of time, traditionalism, efficiency, and achievement. Anglo culture sets great store by the future: gratification is put off today in order to achieve more gratification tomorrow. The Mexican American lacks this future orientation.

> *[He], on the other hand, feels that the present cannot be ignored....He does not look upon the future with vision, nor does he brood over the past.... The Mexican American is dedicated to living the moment to its fullest extent in the roles he finds assigned to him by God.*[18]

(f) Implications of Culture Differences

In terms of schooling, one of the more important concepts related to the above considerations is parental attitude toward higher education. If the Mexican American parent is not normally driven by the same Anglo passion for social and economic prestige, then we can see why the concomitant value placed on further schooling does not rank high on his list of priorities. Add this to the humiliation and alienation often experienced in the school environment, the years of social and economic failure in the history of the Mexican American family, the idea that this is their rightful place in the world, and any attempt to "get ahead" would be a sin against both God and the family heritage; add also the fact that they "feel that the ceaseless push of advancement has fettered the Anglo's integrity and intellectual ability [and] that inactivity and leisure are in themselves worthwhile goals"[19] and we readily see that the school system as it exists today and the entering Mexican American child are going to have some serious differences about what it means to be a successful individual, what one should do with his time, what the direction of one's life should be, and what role in society is desirable.

Nevertheless one must be careful in ascribing all, or even most, scholastic difficulties to divergence in value orientation. The fact is that much research is needed to clarify areas of most concern. For example, it has been stated time and again that a prime source of difficulty is low level educational aspirations both on the part of Mexican American parents and on the part of their children. And yet the famous Coleman report found that failure was largely a result of inadequate programs and language differences. Quoting Martin Deutsch:

> *No matter how the parents might aspire to a higher achievement level for their child, their lack of knowledge as to the operational implementation, combined with the child's early failure experiences in the school, can so effectively attentuate confidence in his ability ever to handle competently challenge in the academic area, that the child loses all motivation.*[20]

(4) The Language Difference and the School Experience

> *From the Anglo viewpoint Spanish is the primary symbol of the "foreignness" of the Mexican-American. For the Latin, Spanish is the primary symbol of loyalty to* La Raza. *The Mexican-American who speaks English in a gathering of conservative Latins is mocked and regarded as a traitor to* La Raza. *Among members of the lower class, such linguistic disloyalty is forgiven only when a man is drunk.*[21]

Imagine the Mexican American child as he enters the school environment—punished by educators for speaking his native tongue and chastized by his family and friends if he does not! All the value orientation factors mentioned above combined with the slow rate of acculturation discussed later create a climate for high retention of Spanish. This high level of language maintenance has gone on for centuries and shows only limited likelihood of change today.

For the Mexican American entering school, his language may be a complex mixture of Spanish and English. He comes to school knowing some English, but uses it infrequently. Many of the objects, social relationships, and cultural attitudes are unfamiliar to him; thus the process of learning the new language becomes even more frustrating and bewildering. The school situation tends to be artificial insofar as its ingredients are not reinforced in the home, and the learning process can become mere parroting and enforced reaction. Methods by which educators have tried to cope with this situation include what amounts to *de facto* segregation when grouping of Spanish-speaking children is done in such a way as to isolate them from the rest because of the "language barrier." In places, *de facto* segregation also exists between schools because of the physical isolation of the *barrios*. In addition, the child may be up against a psychological barrier. Not only is there little that resembles his own culture and value orientation patterns in the school; the social situation is markedly different too. None of the warmth and plasticity found in the home is reproduced to any degree in the school system. In some schools even today Spanish is forbidden in the classroom and on the playground, to the detriment of the child's self-concept. As the schooling goes on, even though English fluency increases, the damage has been done and the child falls further and further behind, until in most cases he drops out.

(5) Slow Rate of Acculturation

It is clear that many of the above elements add to the already extreme sense of alienation from the mainstream of American culture felt by the average Mexican American. Since the beginning of interaction between the two cultures the situation has been marked by relatively slow acculturation on the part of this group, if we compare it with other minorities. Some of the possible factors involved in this phenomenon include:

a. The maintenance of a rural, folk culture and the concomitant lack of close ties either with the richer aspect of Hispanic heritage or with the urban middle class culture of the majority of Anglo Americans.

b. Recurring links between the Spanish-speaking people of the border states and

Mexico, in terms of immigration flow, printed materials, and the entertainment media (radio, television, and motion pictures).

c. Physical and social isolation as previously described and for the reasons mentioned.

d. Relatively few Mexican Americans able to provide leadership or serve as models of success (for the reasons discussed above).

e. Attitudes of suspicion and mistrust toward the Anglos.

Madsen sees the acculturation process taking place on three levels. The base line is the traditional Mexican folk culture of the lower class, manual laborers generally. This level is strongly influenced by United States economy and technology, but has the highest retention of the divergent values derived from the Mexican heritage. The second level of acculturation embraces those individuals who are neither fish nor fowl. Either they have had a fair amount of experience outside the folk culture into which they were born or they are struggling to make the transition. Those who achieve status in the Anglo world are considered to be on the third level of acculturation. They (and those who belong to the second level) are generally of the middle or upper class, relatively free of the factors associated with the culture of poverty discussed in the next section. Madsen says what one could predict, that "the three levels of Mexican-American acculturation frequently represent a three-generational process."[22]

(6) The Culture of Poverty

According to the 1960 census, incomes of Southwestern Spanish-surname individuals are typically lower than incomes of Anglo individuals of the same area. In Texas more than half the Spanish-surname families have an income of less than $3,000 per year. In *Educational Needs of the Mexican American,*[23] Horacio Ulibarrí has elaborated on what has been termed the "culture of poverty" as it pertains to this ethnic group. As he says, there are certain traits common to all groups with similarly low levels of economic and social environment. The plane of existence on which these families have to live creates an ironic situation that moves Ulibarrí to remark that "the cost of being *poor*, financially, is very expensive." Related to this cultural phenomenon are many of the psychological, economic, social, and physical characteristics associated with educational failure: poorer physical and mental health, inadequate skills, lack of intellectual stimulation, lack of motivation and high expectations, a focus on survival rather than on social ascent, planning on a short-term basis, hostility toward the prosperous and fear of exploitation, and a definite fatalistic tendency. As Ulibarrí says, there *must* be change.

> *This necessity requires imagination and perhaps totally different types of educational programs. It requires programs which will widen the scope of experience of these individuals so that they will see that there is another way of life....Above all, they must be removed from the downward spiral of economic and psychological poverty.*[24]

Some Questions

We have presented several facets of the issue and we know that some way out of the maze must be found. But what is the solution? On the one hand, we have a cultural group ill-equipped to cope with their environment or to become successful, contented members of the dominant society. On the other hand, the Anglo society has not yet shown itself sufficiently plastic to be able to incorporate the valuable ingredients of this different way of life.

> *...the Hispano culture offers many of those things in which our own culture is so deficient.... Their interacting efficient family structure is far superior in stability to our own divorce-ridden one. Their filial respect, love of home and family, and fortitude in the face of adversity all fit the American ideal. California and Texas, among other states, could benefit largely from the racial and ethnic tolerance found among Hispanos. If we really want the good will of our neighbors to the south, New Mexico and its Spanish-speaking people might well be the best bridge possible.*[25]

So we return to the question confronted again and again throughout this monograph, "How do we encourage this ethnic group to participate fully in the American system without forcing them to turn their backs on themselves?" Mexican Americans need to end that "downward spiral of economic and psychological poverty" described by Ulibarri but without being forced to lose their identity. And the United States should not lose its opportunity for cultural enrichment and for realistic statesmanship. One way to begin is to utilize what we know, a practice too often neglected by educators in the past.

This paper has been an attempt to bring together some of what we know about Mexican Americans. It has purposefully ignored the advancement made in past years to overcome these areas of conflict and concern. It is meant only to reinforce knowledge that the problem exists, that the numbers involved are many, and that education for this group up until now has been almost 100 percent unsuccessful. Either we have transmuted these people into Anglo Americans with darker skins, or we have fostered early school leaving, delinquency, and a continuation of past injustices. We must begin to take better care of our children—all of them.

II. PUERTO RICANS

Migration and Demographic Data

In 1958 the island of Puerto Rico was said to be the third most densely populated agricultural spot on earth, with over 600 persons per square mile.[26] In 1917 these inhabitants became citizens of the United States, which means that since that time there has been no quota restriction on Puerto Rican migrants; not even a visa is needed to cross to the mainland. The push of population density on the island and the pull of easy access to the mainland have both contributed to increased Puerto Rican migration since World War II. This influx of new Spanish-speakers to mainland shores was said by Clarence Senior to be the "first airborne migration in history."[27] Other causes for migration include the growing impact of the mainland, the attraction of a higher standard of living, and the very poor economic opportunities at home.

According to the United States Census, in 1960 the mainland Puerto Rican population was 856,000, of whom 80 percent lived in New York City. Today's population is probably about 1.5 million and although New York still leads in total number, increasing dispersion from that urban area has reduced its percentage to perhaps as low as about 60. Since 1920 there have been Puerto Ricans in every state. Those with the largest concentrations today are New York, New Jersey, Illinois, California, Pennsylvania, Florida, and Connecticut. Among Spanish-speakers in the United States, Puerto Ricans rank next to Mexican Americans numerically, and they are continuing to enter the country at the rate of about 40,000 per year. Nevertheless, not all stay to settle; probably about 10 to 15 percent return to Puerto Rico.

Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans: Some Similiarities and Some Differences

Puerto Ricans share many of the problems encountered by other Spanish-speaking groups in the United States. Their physical segregation is most striking in New York City, where we find the huge *barrio* called Spanish Harlem. Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans share (although to different degrees) traditional Hispanic value orientations: fatalism, personalism, familism, etc., which make for slow acculturation and culture conflict in the classroom. But for Puerto Ricans, the problems of discrimination are complicated by two extra factors: (1) the growing polarization between Negroes and Puerto Ricans, especially in the New York area, which makes it difficult for gains by one group to be shared by the other; and (2) the fact that about one-third of the Puerto Ricans are Negroes (or colored by mainland standards) as well as Spanish-speaking.

There are some important differences between the two groups which have an effect on language maintenance and on educational failure or success. Most crucial is the degree of their identification with what is thought of as an alien culture and a separate country. Like the Cubans (whose situation we will review later), Puerto Ricans can be broken down into two groups: recent migrants and those who were born and raised on the mainland. The recent migrants still maintain many of the traditional Hispanic culture traits we saw in the Mexican Americans, but are less severely handicapped in language, and more urban in their orientation.

English is compulsory in the schools in Puerto Rico: in the past, English was used as a medium of instruction after the fourth grade. Puerto Ricans emphasize the value of working hard, and most importantly (unlike the predominantly agrarian, folk-oriented Mexican Americans) they place a very high value on formal education. This mixture of variables—some leading toward, and some leading away from, easy assimilation into the dominant American pattern—is described by Elena Padilla:

> *For recent migrants, the most important and most desirable life goals and adaptations in New York are: working hard and being a "good" worker; valuing formal education and schooling; learning English while not forgetting how to speak Spanish; cultivating the desire to "progress" and get ahead, or "to get the feet off the dish," particularly through the education of one's children; being brave and assertive; not letting anyone take advantage of oneself, or "take you for a ride" (*no dejarse coger de bobo*); being quiet; being careful in the selection of friends and trusting only a very few; and preferring the unity and continuity of relationships with one's own family and cooperating [with] and helping those relatives and close friends who are in need.*[28]
>
> *Individuality and self-assertiveness are not so highly prized socially as are dependency and reliance through mutual obligations.*[29]

The high respect for education is not completely transferable into the American system, nevertheless, because on the island the teacher is considered almost a "second parent." Thus, there is a tendency on the part of Puerto Rican parents to let the school system handle all educational problems, to the extent that educators find it difficult to involve the family in programs or individual problems that need community or individual family support.

Mainland-born Puerto Ricans suffer from discrimination and segregation as do Mexican Americans but they are more fully assimilated into the dominant culture. They place a high value on English and are not nearly so fatalistic in their value orientation as either recent Puerto Rican migrants or Mexican Americans.

Language Maintenance

Although Mexican Americans include all Spanish-speakers in their definition of La Raza, Puerto Ricans do not generally identify themselves so closely with their Spanish heritage. According to a recent survey concerning the Puerto Rican Spanish language press in New York City, the "Spanish press does not serve a readership that actively seeks to maintain or to develop Hispanic culture in any ideologically mobilized fashion."[30] Even though the researchers found that "relative to the English press the Spanish press fosters and reinforces a view of the Spanish language as being the normal and entirely desirable vehicle of communication of Hispanic New Yorkers,"[31] they also discovered that Puerto Rican New Yorkers "are not yet language conscious or organized on behalf of language use, language recognition, or language maintenance."[32]

Once Again – Educational Failure

Even though Puerto Ricans may differ from Mexican Americans in certain important respects, they are quite similar in one very unfortunate way: they are educationally deprived. There are an estimated 400,000 Puerto Rican children in the public schools today. The Coleman report showed that they lag behind both urban whites and urban Negroes in verbal ability, reading comprehension, and math. As Richard Margolis says, "Relatively speaking, the longer a Puerto Rican child attends public school, the less he learns."[33]

In addition to all of the causal factors mentioned with respect to the Mexican American child (segregation, retention in grade owing to language difficulty, culture conflict, etc.) another factor of particular importance to the Puerto Rican school child is the growing strain on the urban school systems. One way of relieving this pressure would be to use the resources they have, but in New York where there is a great Puerto Rican pool of potential teachers, Margolis found that in a certain Bronx school district with 65 percent of the student body Puerto Rican, only 2 percent of the teachers were Puerto Rican. Of course, the situation regarding Mexican American school teachers is similar. The problems remain critical.

> *The children are losing all hopes of learning or succeeding; the schools are losing all hopes of teaching; and the nation is losing another opportunity, perhaps its last, to put flesh on the American dream.*[34]

III. CUBANS

Immigration and Demographic Data

In November of 1965 the United States and Cuba concluded a memorandum of understanding which provided for a regular monthly airlift of some 4,000 Cuban refugees to Miami. From the time Castro gained power until 1966, 300,000 Spanish-speaking refugees entered the country,[35] and today Cuba is probably the largest contributor of immigrants to the United States. Even at the rate of 4,000 per month, it will take more than 16 years to fly in all Cubans that have requested to come.[36] Of the 317,144 Cuban nationals who reported under the alien address program in 1967, Florida alone had over one-third (136,244)[37] followed in order by New York, New Jersey, California, and Illinois. However, most Cubans eventually find a home outside the Miami-Dade County area, with about 24 percent (still a sizeable number) remaining.

As reported in 1966, Cuban refugees were primarily city people, women and children comprising 62 percent of the total number. This is because the refugees were exclusively of the first-priority category, that is, relatives of those already in the United States. Of those arriving ninety percent spoke Spanish only.[38] It seems unlikely that the general characteristics of these refugees has changed much since 1966. Hijackers notwithstanding, there has been a growing disenchantment with the revolution; and unless there is a political change within Cuba, we can expect immigration numbers to remain high and the resulting strain on our public schools to be critical.

Old and New Cubans[39]

In the previous section we found that there were clear differences between the recent Puerto Rican arrivals and those who are mainland born and raised. There is a similar pattern among the Cubans; Old and New Cubans form two distinct subcultures. If the Puerto Ricans seem less tightly knit than the Mexican Americans, the Cuban lack of identity with the total Cuban population is even more striking. New Cubans (Castro refugees) feel that their stay will be only temporary, and they make every attempt to pattern their life-style around "the way things are done at home." Of course, the necessity of getting along in the United States makes it difficult to retain all of the former Cuban culture patterns and blurs memory of the past. Among New Cubans this tends to form a new culture in which idealized memories of traditional patterns still linger. Except for children and teenagers outside the home, who, compared to their parents, are undergoing a relatively rapid acculturation process, New Cubans are adamant about the retention of Spanish.

The Old Cubans in Florida, located primarily in Ybor City near Tampa, never felt threatened to any significant degree by the dominant culture around them; they began early to acquire foreign ways and to learn English. The Ybor City residents have gradually acculturated to American norms; and, as a result of welcoming Spanish immigrants into the community, retain an Iberian-Cuban culture core as a matter of pride—and as a tourist attraction.

In parts of Florida there is a marked tension between Old and New Cubans. This antagonism can probably be found in other areas in the United States where there are sizeable numbers of both groups in one area, e.g., New York and New Jersey. "The original settlers often felt they were being treated as provincials, as second-class Cubans."[40] Class distinctions result in increased factionalism. "Discussions with Puerto Ricans and Mexican Americans rarely include a reference to Iberian antecedents; with both Old and New Cubans this a major conversational marker."[41]

Puerto Ricans and Cubans

Cubans constitute the third highest number of Spanish-speakers in the United States. In Part II of this appendix, a comparison was made between Puerto Ricans and Mexican Americans; we find that the Cubans have distinct features also. Compared with the other two groups, the Cubans, especially the New Cubans, hold on much more persistently to their old way of life.

> *Unlike the Puerto Ricans who justify tradition retention and acculturative innovation as part of the American melting pot tradition [supposedly, the way* they *conceive of this tradition], the Cubans emphasize retention of traditional values and behavior.*[42]

Religious activities are much more important among the Cuban refugees than among Puerto Ricans. Also, "New Cubans in Miami are making what seems to be quick adjustment to the economic system but appear to devaluate other American folkways more than the Puerto Ricans."[43] Unfortunately, in addition to the tension between Old and New Cubans, we find that Cubans as a group tend to be prejudiced against Puerto Ricans, but their prejudice takes the form of disdain rather than hostility.

Education – Some Problems and Some Promise

In 1966, Dade County, Florida, was feeling the impact of nearly 20,000 Spanish-speaking children,[44] an informal survey taken in New York revealed that there were about 3,500 Cuban students in the public schools, two-thirds of whom were in the elementary grades.[45] On the face of what has continued to be almost a crisis situation, the Miami-Dade County area has offered a solution in the form of a shining example of what bilingual schooling can do. Through the Office of Education the Department of Health, Education and Welfare contracted with the Dade County School System to provide instruction in grades one through twelve for Cuban refugee children attending Dade County schools. Through this effort, two model bilingual programs were put into effect. The Coral Way Elementary School is completely bilingual; the children are taught by native speakers of each language for approximately equal periods of time. Other Dade County schools include a period a day of Spanish language arts instruction at all grade levels for native speakers of Spanish. Even though these schools have had great success, the number of refugees entering the country has placed a tremendous load on the educational system. At first the ratio of Anglos to Cubans was about 50-50, but today the number of Cubans is increasing so fast that contact with an English-speaking school community is being greatly reduced.

Conclusion

The majority of Cubans in the country today are New Cubans, or Castro refugees. They are an urban, predominately middle class population, and almost all are on arrival unilingual in Spanish. These Cubans hope that they will soon be able to return to the homeland, although the younger Cubans "don't have their suitcases packed."[46] Their attempts to hold on to all ingredients of the Cuban culture in an entirely different environmental setting has alienated them from other minority groups and even from the old Cubans. Although they are a people with a unique culture and history, they have many of the same problems as the other Spanish-speakers. The educational solutions for them are no easier to discover than those necessary for other Spanish-speakers. The challenge is equally great for Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans. The common ingredients are the Spanish language and varying degrees of identification with the Hispanic tradition. But we must learn to appreciate differences too. We may generalize about the children, but the child is always special.

NOTES

[1] Madsen, *The Mexican Americans of South Texas*, p. 15.

[2] Brussell, *Disadvantaged Mexican American Children and Early Childhood Experience*, pp. 14-19.

[3] Burma, *Spanish-Speaking Groups in the United States*, p. 5.

[4] Anderson and Johnson, *Sociocultural Determinants of Achievements Among Mexican American students,* p. 1.

[5] Christian and Christian, "Spanish Language and Culture in the Southwest," p. 280.

[6] Ibid, p. 281.

[7] Burma, op. cit., p. 20.

[8] United States Congress, Senate, *Bilingual Education*, p. 60

[9] Carter, *Preparing Teachers for Mexican American Children*, p. 3.

[10] Brussell, op. cit., pp. 25-44.

[11] Burma, op. cit., p. 113.

[12] As quoted in Burma, ibid.

[13] Brussell, op. cit., p. 3.

[14] Christian and Christian, op. cit., p. 306.

[15] Brussell, op. cit., p. iv.

[16] Christian and Christian, op. cit., p. 306.

[17] Brussell, op. cit., p. 33.

[18] Ibid., p. 34.

[19] Ibid., p. 35.

[20] As quoted in Anderson and Johnson, op. cit., p. 17.

[21] Madsen, op. cit., p. 106.

[22] Ibid., p. 3.

[23] Ulibarrí, *Educational Needs of the Mexican American*, pp. 15-16.

[24] Ibid., p. 16.

[25] Burma, op. cit., p. 32.

[26] Burma, op. cit., p. 156.

[27] As quoted in Padilla, *Up From Puerto Rico*, p. vii.

[28] Ibid., p. 57.

[29] Ibid., p. 170.

[30] Fishman and Casiano, "Puerto Ricans in Our Press," p. 159.

[31] Ibid., p. 167, note 8.

[32] Ibid., p. 158.

[33] Margolis, *The Losers: A Report on Puerto Ricans and the Public Schools,* p. 2.

[34] Ibid., p. i.

[35] United States Congress, Senate, *Cuban Refugee Problem*, p. 68.

[36] Hutchinson, "The New Immigration," p. 49.

[37] United States Congress, Senate, *Bilingual Education*, p. 425.

[38] United States Congress, Senate, *Cuban Refugee Problem*, p. 167.

[39] The information in this section and the next is primarily drawn from Smith, "The Spanish-Speaking Population of Florida," pp. 120-133.

[40] Ibid., p. 127.

[41] Ibid., p. 126.

[42] Ibid., p. 123.

[43] Ibid., p. 124.

[44] United States Congress, Senate, *Cuban Refugee Problem*, p. 167.

[45] Ibid., p. 210.

[46] Smith, op. cit., p. 124.

APPENDIX L

GERMAN–SPEAKING PEOPLES IN THE UNITED STATES[1]

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Introduction
Colonial Immigrants; The History of Pennsylvania German
Post-Colonial Language Islands
General History of German Language Maintenance Efforts
German Schooling and the German Language Today
Small Ecclesiastical Groups
Conclusion

INTRODUCTION

There are German American inhabitants in every one of the fifty states today. In the eighteenth century German was the only significant non-English language in the United States and around 1850 it was still the language of about seventy percent of all non-English-speaking immigrants. Even today, if we put together all the figures for immigration since 1700, immigrants of German mother tongue constitute by far the largest subgroup. They were the first and one of the strongest groups to advocate teaching in the vernacular. Nevertheless, owing chiefly to intense interaction with the English-speaking community and to harsh language policies beginning in 1917, we find that today German is rapidly disappearing. Unless some drastic change comes about soon, principally in terms of interest among the predominantly English-speaking younger generations of German Americans, this language hertiage will lack any reinforcement.

This loss is regrettable in terms of national interest, but it is debatable whether planned reinforcement in the form of bilingual schooling is as pressing for this group as for other ethnic minorities mentioned in this monograph. We present this history as an example of a great linguistic heritage probably lost to these United States. How ironic that we spend so many thousands of dollars teaching German on the higher levels when a continuation of past language maintenance efforts on the part of the German community itself could have supplied us with a rich fund of teachers and educated speakers of German!

COLONIAL IMMIGRANTS; THE HISTORY OF PENNSYLVANIA GERMAN

At the time of the Revolutionary War immigrants from Germany were highly concentrated in Pennsylvania, constituting one-third of this state's population. There was a distinctive Pennsylvania German dialect as early as 1800 and it has been maintained, although by increasingly smaller numbers of speakers, down to the present day. Even though this dialect dominated the Pennsylvania area, Standard German was used in the churches, in songs, and employed as a vehicle of instruction in the schools.

The two majority religious traditions of the Pennsylvania Germans are the Lutheran and Reformed Churches. They, along with other religious groups, encouraged the maintenance of the language, and there was an early rapid growth of church schools. The years from 1870 to 1890 were the high point in number of speakers and intensity of the use of this dialect. During this period there were around 750,000 speakers, with about 600,000 of them in Pennsylvania.

Unfortunately, as mentioned above, this dialect has steadily decreased in vitality. One of the most crucial factors determining this situation, according to Heinz Kloss, was that "the tendency to neglect secondary and higher education on the part of these church groups led to an early one-sided acculturation of the diminutive English-trained intelligentsia and this in turn caused disagreement, after 1800, as to which language or combination of languages should be fostered."*

POST-COLONIAL LANGUAGE ISLANDS

The large post-colonial language islands located in Ohio, Indiana, and spreading throughout the midwest were as a rule far less homogeneous than those of the Pennsylvania German area, for they consisted of both Protestants and Roman Catholics and fell into a number of dialect areas. This created a state of severe linguistic instability. "There was no single vernacular common to all German rural areas throughout one state as there was in Pennsylvania. While one language island might be solidly speaking one dialect, the two nearest ones were sure to use other dialects, and in a great many cases even one single compact island would consist of two or more dialect areas."[2]* Planned language-maintenance efforts were unfavorably influenced by the lack of congruence between state boundaries and the areas of heaviest German concentration.

"The 1830's marked the turning point in the history of High German in these areas. The newly created public school system was overwhelmingly English from its very beginning in 1834. The Deutsche Reform movement which was sweeping over Eastern Pennsylvania (1835-1837) pressed for a higher degree of institutional bilingualism, in particular German editions of the session laws, but dodged the issue of German in public schools. Conversely, the German Press Association of Pennsylvania (1862-ca.1880), an alliance between the leading men of the religious as well as of the secular German papers,"* did much to promote the founding of German Sunday schools or weekday schools supplementary to free public schools and brought about the creation of a few *public* schools where instruction was bilingual (Harrisburg 1886; Lancaster 1868).

For the immigrants who came during this period their sectarian rather than sectional distribution has greater importance from the standpoint of language, as we have seen from the great diversity of dialects which could be located in one area. The rural population was made up almost entirely of "Church Germans" (Roman Catholic, Orthodox Lutherans, and other Protestants). The urban German element were to a large extent Liberals or what were called "Club Germans." Roman Catholics and Orthodox Lutherans insisted on creating and maintaining their own language schools. The Roman Catholics soon stressed the bilingual aspect, and the Old Lutherans tried to maintain the predominance of German over English in their schools. The other Protestants and the secularized Liberals were less tenacious. They gradually abandoned their own German schools because, since the 1860's, as we have seen, much was being done to foster German in the public elementary schools which served communities with large German American populations.

GENERAL HISTORY OF GERMAN LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE EFFORTS

During the period from 1830 to 1848 the German Americans were devoted to the ideal of keeping their language alive. At this time a breakthrough was achieved in the field of elementary education. German-English district schools came into being in Ohio. Cincinnati became the focus of this activity with uninterrupted bilingual instruction from 1840 to 1917. This was also a period which saw the beginning of the new system of German parochial schools mentioned above.

The period from 1848 to 1882 was marked by increased German American activity. During this time, they had the greatest numerical strength, scholarly and literary works in German multiplied and there was an increase in the political influence of these people.

There was an enormous expansion in the teaching of German. A number of independent private schools were created, parochial schools increased in number, and many public school systems introduced German into their curricula. During this period the beginnings made in Ohio attained their greatest development.

> *The bilingual public school systems of Cincinnati, Baltimore, and Indianapolis were shining achievements, of which the Anglo-Americans could be as proud as their German-American brethern–achievements in the three dimensions of linguistic maintenance efforts, of bicultural education, and of minority rights.*[3]

But seeds of disintegration appeared even during this great period of growth. An important factor was that after 1848 the schism between church-minded and radical German Americans became definite and permanent. Then around 1890, three nationwide storms developed. The first was directed against the teaching of German in the public schools. Even the Germans now advocated the cultivation of the German language only because of its cultural value and not simply because it was the mother tongue of the pupils. In 1901 Professor Marion D. Learned, a leading spokesman of the German element (himself of non-German descent) declared:

> *(1) All American public schools should recognize English as the official language of the school and of general instruction. (2) No foreign language should be taught in the American public schools simply because the pupils and patrons of the school speak the foreign language in question. If this not be recognized, we should have not only German schools but Hungarian, Polish, [sic] Italian as well. (3) Only such foreign languages should be introduced as have a general cultural importance or commercial value for Americans....(8) Of all the modern languages German at the present deserves the first place, both for its cultural and commercial value.*[4]

"The second controversy arose within the Roman Catholic Church and centered around the alleged segregation and insulation of the German-speaking Catholics symbolized by national parishes and their bilingual parochial schools."* And the third, chiefly directed against the Lutheran schools, was marked by the passing of laws in Wisconsin and Illinois prescribing English as the only medium of instruction for most subjects in non-public schools.

In spite of these forces, the period from 1882 to 1917 saw unparalleled political and cultural growth. Organizations flourished and a distinctive German American cultural atmosphere developed. But the Liberals, Catholics, and Protestants continued to form separate camps, and English was making heavy inroads as the language of worship, particularly after 1900. Paradoxically, new waves of immigrants kept the earlier arrivals from consolidating their gains. These new peoples kept alive the feeling that the German language was somehow bound up with "outsiders." Therefore, where the numbers of new immigrants remained comparatively small, one frequently found greater language vitality, e.g. in Texas and southern Minnesota.

This unequaled activity and interest in things German was followed in 1917, with our entry into World War I, by an equally unparalleled downfall. The teaching of German was forbidden in all public as well as most private schools. The intense anti-German sentiment broadened into anti-foreign feeling generally.

Around 1930, with a distinct lessening of inter-ethnic tensions, political refugees from Nazi Germany–eighty to ninety percent of Jewish extraction–entered the country. "Never before did a wave of German immigrants accept the equation 'Americanization=Anglicization' so wholeheartedly and unreservedly."[5] The German language press underwent constant shrinkage and the new potential language maintenance factor in radio broadcasting came too late to arrest the rapid decline of the German language.

As far as the parochial schools were concerned, the Missouri Synod and the Wisconsin Synod were the only church bodies to continue to teach German in the day schools to any considerable extent. In most bilingual parochial schools, the teaching and use of German was confined to the language lessons themselves and to the teaching of religion.

At this time, the Russian Germans located in the Dakotas (people of German ethnic stock from settlement enclaves in Russia) were the stronghold of the German language. Nevertheless, German lived on in this area only because of the sheer size of the German-speaking area and because these families were old hands at holding on to their traditional way of life in a non-German environment. "Sizeable though smaller settlements of Russian Germans can still be found in Nebraska, Kansas, and Colorado."*

After 1941 the Saturday schools (language schools set up to foster the teaching of German outside the public school system) ceased to function until the fifties, when a limited number of new supplementary *Sprachschulen* were founded. Sunday schools made English the only teaching medium, as did the last of the bilingual parochial schools. After 1945 the Orthodox Lutheran Church bodies reversed their postion. Originally they had been the staunchest defenders of language maintenance, but now they contributed to the final doom of the German tongue by discouraging its use. A further factor was the mass exodus from American farmsteads that began during this period as a result of large scale mechanization. This led to a demographic thinning out, especially of the German and Scandinavian rural "islands" or enclaves.

GERMAN SCHOOLING AND THE GERMAN LANGUAGE TODAY

Two major areas in terms of number of German-speakers today are located in Pennsylvania (with approximately 200,000 speakers) and Texas (with about 70,000 speakers). In Pennsylvania, and throughout the Pennsylvania German diaspora, there has been a steady breakdown of the folk culture. This, combined with an almost complete turning away from the old tongue on the part of the younger generations, leaves little hope for a revival of interest in this area. "Still, Professors Barba and Buffington claimed as late as 1955 in their grammar of the dialect that there were high schools where four-fifths of the students still spoke the dialect."[6]*

The outlook for German is slightly better in Texas, where the language has been spoken during a period of five or more generations in a multi-ethnic environment. Large-scale colonization occurred in Texas between 1844 and 1848 and resulted in the coherent and continual German tradition which is still maintained in the Central Texas region, for example in Fayette and Gillespie counties. Around eighty percent of the high schoolers in Fredericksburg still know at least some German and German church services are a present-day reality there.

SMALL ECCLESIASTICAL GROUPS

Three small ecclesiastical bodies which have remained almost completely German are, with a few exceptions, made up entirely of native-born Americans: the Old Order Amish, the Hutterites, and the Old Order Mennonites. The situation most resembling bilingual schooling among German Americans exists among the Amish. But even in their parochial schools which have sprung up during the last twenty years German is not formally cultivated as a subject, let alone as a second medium of teaching. Instead it is perpetuated, imperfectly, in a number of informal ways. Around 35,000 in number, their main centers are in Ohio, Indiana, and Pennsylvania. The group residing in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, is the oldest and most conservative of the Amish settlements in the United States. They continue to preserve the nineteenth century Pennsylvania German pattern of trilingualism which contributes to their social isolation. Pennsylvanish (Pennsylvania Dutch) is the dialect used at home and in informal conversation; High German is used exclusively for services and ceremonials; and English (acquired in school) is employed with non-Amish Americans.[7] Their largest school is located in mid-east Ohio near Campton.

The situation is the same for the Old Order Mennonites (ca. 10,000) and their recently founded parochial schools. The Hutterites teach in English in their own schools, or attend public schools; they also maintain the informal teaching of German. Today there are eighteen colonies in South Dakota and Montana whose combined population of 2,000 are still 100 percent German-speaking.

The 2,000 or so Amanites in Iowa were the only ones to maintain the German language with the open support of the government. Up to 1917 it was the only language used in the lower grades, while in the higher grades the teaching was bilingual. Present trends suggest that English will be the exclusive language of the future.

According to Kloss, in 1967 there were about fifty Saturday German language schools in the United States.[8] And if an urban center such as Chicago is any indication, there are still some signs of life left in this heritage. Presently about one-tenth of the total population of Chicago are German-speaking Americans; nevertheless, their social and educational activities are carried on largely in English. In rural areas of such states as Kansas we again find German at a low ebb. The several German dialects located in the various settlements are spoken primarily by the adult population. There is no tendency toward a general Kansas-German dialect. The surviving types of German reflect the settlement patterns established in the 1870's and 1880's, and religious sectarianism plays a large role in the continuing isolation of the dialects and their speakers.

In Wisconsin, once again, one of the critical factors in the decreasing vitality of German has been the problem of dialect variation. In 1880, 31.8 percent of the population was German-speaking, but today German has ceased to exist outside the family except around Wausau and a few townships just north of Milwaukee. Although the active use of German has declined, the ability to speak it is still widespread, primarily among the older generation.

CONCLUSION

It is estimated that in 1960 German Americans numbered a little below the three million mark, and from 1961 to 1967 approximately 200,000 additional immigrants of German mother tongue came to the United States. Cities having an important surviving German community include New York, Chicago, and Baltimore. But it is in the isolated enclaves of German America where we find the greatest vitality today, especially among the Texas Germans and the "plain sects" mentioned above.

NOTES

[1] The information in this summary comes almost exclusively from Heinz Kloss, "German-American Language Maintenance Efforts," Chapter 15 in: Joshua Fishman and Associates, *Language Loyalty in the United States*, Vol. II. New York, Yeshiva University, 1964. (Mimeographed Report in three volumes to the U. S. Office of Education). This version is considerably fuller than the 1966 published edition.

*The author would also like to express her appreciation to Professor Kloss for suggested revisions and additions, which are identified by means of asterisks.

[2] This has been admirably set forth, at an early date, by K. A. Levi-Everest in his "Geographical Origin of German Immigration."

[3] Kloss, op. cit., p. 69.

[4] Kloss, *Volksgruppenrecht*, Vol. II, p. 673.

[5] Kloss, op. cit., p. 81.

[6] Buffington and Barba, *A Pennsylvania German Grammar.*

[7] Vander Zanden, "Minimum Assimilation: The Amish." In: *American Minority Relations*, p. 331.

[8] Kloss, "Deutscher Sprachunterricht im Grundschulalter in den Vereinigten Staaten."

APPENDIX M

THE ITALIAN AMERICANS

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- Italian Immigration to the United States
    - History
    - Demographic Data
- Statistical and Geographical Data
- Italian Dialects
- The Education of Italians in the United States
    - The Background
    - Italian Children in New York City
    - Bilingual Schooling?

ITALIAN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES

History[1]

Italians in the United States constitute numerically, culturally, and politically an important minority group, second only to the Spanish-speaking communities (whose number has grown since the recent influx of Puerto-Ricans in New York). Smaller in size than almost any one of our western states, Italy has contributed a larger number if immigrants to America than any other country in the world, with the single exception of Germany.

The Italians were relatively late arrivals in the United States, with the peaks of their immigration occurring in 1907 and in 1913, just before World War I, then in 1920. The first immigrants came from North and West Italy, but as these sections became more prosperous and industrialized and greater opportunities for labor became available at home, the immigration from the North was markedly reduced, and by the time the 1921 and 1924 stringent quota laws on immigration began to operate, four-fifths of all Italian immigrants were coming from Southern Italy. They emigrated because of the impoverished conditions back home, where the land was owned either by the church or by wealthy barons and the peasant with his small plot was unable to live from the yield.[2] As they heard about the unlimited opportunities that existed on the other side of the ocean, the humblest merchants left their shops, the peasants left their vineyards, and tidal waves of South Italian immigrants began to strike the American coast. What a disillusionment awaited the majority of them! The Western frontier was almost gone, free land had vanished, and they had to settle in cities, where unskilled industrial jobs were the only occupations which could fit their capacities in an urban environment.[3] At first they worked as common laborers on railroad and other construction projects throughout the Northeast and replaced the Irish, who had also arrived in the same pitiful conditions, but unlike them most of the Italian immigrants were men who came without families, in many cases with no intention of staying. As a matter of fact the Italian immigration had one of the smallest proportions of women[4] and children and one of the highest proportions of returning immigrants.[5]

Handicapped as they were by their lack of experience and training and their inability to speak English, they were rapidly seized upon as a source of cheap labor. This constant position of inferiority in the economic scale, their exploitation by the older groups, not only made progress in the new land difficult and slow but also created bitterness, antagonism, and a feeling of human degradation which had never entered their minds before they emigrated. Besides, the adverse situation created by their language disability was accentuated by the fact that illiteracy among them was very high: more than half of the South Italian immigrants over fourteen were illiterate, as were 12 percent of the North Italians. This difference was reduced when, after the first World War, adult immigrants were required to show literacy.

Although many of them came with the idea of accumulating wealth and then returning to their native country, relatively few of the immigrants attained this goal. Others migrated with the intention of making America their homeland. In both groups, the money that was saved was often used to send for relatives or to buy property in the United States.

Since many of the earlier Italian immigrants were without friends or relatives, they felt a need for protection. A large number placed themselves in the hands of an intermediary, the "padrone," or "boss." The *padrone*, usually of Italian origin, knew the American customs and therefore was in a position, or was believed to be in a position, to help the immigrants find jobs and living accommodations. In may cases the *padrone* contracted for the labor of men from South Italy, arranged for their passage, and collected a commission from both employer and worker.[6]

Another way in which the immigrant sought protection was by joining a mutual aid society or benefit organization to reduce the risks of sickness, accident, or death. At first these were local and provincial organizations based upon the places of origin in Italy, but later, because of the weakness of these small units, mergers occurred to protect what had already been invested. As these larger groups brought together more individuals from different parts of Italy, they found themselves developing a newly awakened patriotism for their old homeland, a greater realization that they were all Italians and not merely villagers or provincials.

As the years passed and the Italians gradually became absorbed into American life, they, like other nationality groups, began to lose their distinctiveness and to become more and more like the other Americans around them. Today in the southern part of the United States many Italians are in the fishing industry or grow tobacco or sugar cane. In California, northern Italians have established themselves in the wine-making industry, while in San Francisco Sicilians outnumber all others in fishing. Italians in New England and elsewhere in the east have been very successful in truck gardening. Because so many of the Italians became workers in industry, they entered the organized labor movement; and since the 1920's they have headed many locals. As they have gradually established themselves economically and have begun to vote in large numbers, many of them have become prominent in politics. And along with economic and political adjustment has come, particularly for the second and third generations, considerable progress in housing and in educational attainment.

Demographic Data

Italian immigrants into America in the years 1820 to 1943 numbered 4,719,825. Today, the number of foreign born Italians and their descendants in the United States is estimated to be about six million.

In 1880, according to the official census, there were only 44,000 Italians in the country, 12,000 of whom lived in New York, which was the largest settlement from the very beginning of the turbulent history of Italian immigration to America. As the number of Italians in the country grew steadily, New York continued to hold about a quarter of them. In the first decade of immigration, the 1880's, 268,000 Italians came, but so many of them returned that only 183,000 were counted in 1890. This pattern was repeated for the next two decades. In the nineties, 604,000 Italians entered this country, but only 484,000 were enumerated in 1900. In the first decade of the twentieth century, 2,104,000 came, but only 1,343,000 persons of Italian birth were recorded in 1910. The pattern then began to change. Between 1910 and 1920, 1,110,000 immigrants arrived, so that in 1920 there was a total of 1,610,000 persons of Italian birth in the country. Since that date, the immigration was a permanent and seemingly never ending flow. Men came with their families, or hoped to bring them soon, and returned to Italy only for visits or in their old age. Eventually, the quota act of 1924 cut off the flood, and only 455,000, which is nevertheless an enormous number compared to immigration from other sources, entered during the twenties. In 1930, there were 1,690,000 persons of Italian birth in the country, the largest number ever shown in a census. In 1940, there were more Italian-born Americans than immigrants from any other country: 1,623,580, or 14.2 percent of the total foreign-born whites in the United States. Besides, 2,971,000 reported that one of their parents (or both) was born in Italy, and 2,595,000 were natives whose parents were of Italian-born parentage, which brings the total number of Italian Americans for that year to 6,189,580.

As many Italians as the stringent laws allow still enter the United States, and the waiting list is so long that years, often even decades, pass before an Italian who has no American relatives is granted an immigrant visa by an American consulate.

During the 1950's, between 12,000 and 20,000 Italians entered each year, of whom about a third settled in the New York metropolitan region. This area has always been so densely populated with Italian immigrants that it is one of the largest Italian cities in the world, whose number of Italians is exceeded only by Rome, Milan, Naples, and Turin. In 1890, there were 75,000 Italian-born persons and 40,000 of Italian parentage in New York, together less than 5 percent of the city's population. But in the next decade, it increased to 11 percent of the population, then to 14 percent in 1920. In 1917, as much as 30 percent of the children in the public schools were of Italian parentage. Considering the high Italian birth rate in the 1910's and the 1920's, the Italian population of New York City (those born in Italy, their children, and their grandchildren) must by 1930 have been at least a sixth of the total.[7] There is every reason to believe that they make up the same portion today, and thus rank second in size only to the Jews among ethnic groups in the city. In 1950, Italian immigrants and their children made up 13 percent of the population of the city; with the third generation included, a sixth is even a modest estimate.

STATISTICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

The number of native speakers of Italian (or an Italian dialect) in the United States was somewhat over 3.5 million in 1960. As shown in our appendix on demographic data, estimates vary according to the source, but indicate that Italian Americans are still one of the largest linguistic groups in the United States. Three decades ago, they were *the* largest.

The 1960 official Census provides detailed data on the 1,277,585 foreign-born Italian-mother-tongue individuals enumerated at the time. The figures they give reflect the general distribution of Italians in the states and various metropolitan areas.

By state, foreign-born Italian speakers are distributed as follows:[8]

Rank	State	Number of Italian-mother-tongue foreign-born	Percentage of total number of foreign-born
1	New York	445,908	19.5
2	New Jersey	139,696	22.8
3	Pennsylvania	132,780	22.0
4	California	106,823	7.9
5	Massachusetts	87,672	15.2
6	Illinois	73,360	10.7
7	Connecticut	65,889	23.9
8	Ohio	50,827	12.8
9	Michigan	38,111	7.2
10	Rhode Island	18,634	21.6
11	Florida	16,559	6.1
12	Maryland	10,530	11.1
13	Missouri	9,233	11.8
14	Wisconsin	8,709	5.1
15	Washington	6,218	3.4

Among major metropolitan areas, the distribution of the *foreign-born* Italian population is as follows:[8]

Rank	Large Metropolitan Area	State	Number of Italian-mother-tongue foreign-born	Percentage of total number of foreign-born
1	New York City	N.Y.	350,304	18.8
2	Philadelphia	Pa.	64,195	21.4
3	Chicago	Ill.	62,976	10.5
4	Boston	Mass.	58,049	18.1
5	Newark	N.J.	39,790	21.8
6	Pittsburgh	Pa.	37,324	24.5
7	Paterson-Clifton Passaic	N.J.	36,049	24.0
8	San Francisco-Oakland	Calif.	35,776	11.9
9	Los Angeles-Long Beach	Calif.	32,545	5.3
10	Detroit	Mich.	31,747	8.7
11	Jersey City	N.J.	26,181	30.0
12	Buffalo	N.Y.	20,744	18.0
13	Cleveland	Ohio	19,388	11.4
14	Providence-Pawtucket	R.I.	18,403	21.6
15	Rochester	N.Y.	17,281	29.7
16	Hartford	Conn.	12,436	20.6
17	New Haven	Conn.	11,855	35.9
18	Albany-Shenectady-Troy	N.Y.	11,560	26.2
19	Syracuse	N.Y.	9,474	26.3
20	Youngstown-Warren	Ohio	9,105	25.3
21	San Jose	Calif.	8,229	16.1
22	Utica-Rome	N.Y.	7,750	31.0
23	Bridgeport	Conn.	7,651	20.7
24	Baltimore	Md.	7,398	12.5
25	St. Louis	Mo.-Ill.	7,291	12.6
26	Washington	D.C.-Md.-Va.	6,414	7.3
27	Miami	Fla.	5,950	5.3

As one can see from the foregoing tables, the geographical distribution shows that the areas of concentration are the Eastern states, extending inland toward Chicago, and in California, which is a separate area.

Over 90 percent of the Italian born population lives in cities and in urban communities. The New York urbanized region has about a third of the nation's Italian born, with eleven other large cities having 20,000 or more, totaling, with New York City, 62.6 percent of all foreign-born. More than 70 cities have over 1,000. As expected, the heaviest concentrations are found in the largest metropolitan areas of the United States.

Whereas most of the Italians living in the East are from the Neapolitan provinces and Sicily, those in the far-west are from North Italy and their activities are predominantly agricultural. In California, where there is also a large flourishing colony of Swiss-Italians, one third of the population born in Italy is Genoese, one third Tuscan (mostly from the province of Lucca), one sixth from Piedmont, Lombardy, and Venetia, and one sixth from south of the Tiber.[9]

ITALIAN DIALECTS

One of the richest fields for dialect study in the world today is undoubtedly Italy, where the number of dialects of the Italian language is great and where the differences between some of them are so profound that a given pair may be mutually unintelligible. Thus the word "dialect" here connotes a much more radical variation from the standard language than it normally does in reference to English.[10]

Although educated Italians speak also the uniform, formal language learned from textbooks (which itself differs considerably from any of the dialects), in the heart of the family the more familiar, spontaneous, and natural medium of expression is the dialect. This is why, when Italians emigrate, they go in little bands and establish colonies that are not only *Italian* colonies but *provincial* colonies as well. Many of the immigrants did not go to school long enough to learn to speak standard Italian, but all or nearly all of them have heard it enough to be able to understand it. However, many second generation persons who speak a dialect fluently say that their knowledge of standard Italian is so insufficient that they cannot even understand it,[11] so that it becomes wrong to say that their mother tongue is "Italian" since this word connotes so many dialects. Bidialectal schooling for them might be an interesting prospect, but only for transitional purposes and not for the preservation of culture.

Because of the enormous number of Italian immigrants that came to our shores and the similar nature of the problems they had to face, one might think that their communities constitute strongly ethnocentered and well-coordinated groups; but this has never been the case, the reason being mainly this "dialect barrier." Many of them were not even aware of the great cultural heritage associated with the Italian language, and so they showed no desire to preserve it and perpetuate it. Besides, the relatively unstandardized nature of the Italian language even today, the lack of socio-cultural and political integration in Italy, the lack of Italian press in the United States, and the complete lack of urban, intellectual immigrants were other important factors preventing ethnocentrism among Italian Americans. Also, the hostile attitude that many Americans have toward them, mainly caused by Italian fascism and Italian gangsterism, prevented a rapid assimilation.

In order to understand one another and to be understood by other Americans, Italian immigrants have created a new "language," commonly called *Italo-American*, whose vocabulary is made up in a very large part of Italianized English words. One therefore very frequently hears formations of the type called "loan blends" by Einar Haugen, like *tantanne* for "downtown," *azzorrati* for "that's all right," *wazzumara* for "what's the matter," *gotaelli* for "go to hell," *ghella* for "girl," *giobba* for "job," etc., which show the influence of English morphology but are phonetically pure Italian words. These sound calques lead them to misuse such Italian words as *ridere*, which means "to read" to them by analogy with English, although it really means "to laugh" in Italian.[12]

THE EDUCATION OF ITALIANS IN THE UNITED STATES[13]

The Background

The chief factor in restricting the education of second generation Italian Americans has been the attitude of their parents toward schooling and the state of maladjustment of the Italian family in America. The South Italian immigrants came from villages in which schools were only for the children of the *galantuomini*, and the peasant's child (should his parents have the strange idea of sending him) was unwelcome. There was, it is true, a compulsory education law, but it was never enforced. Besides, the educational system was being controlled from and based on norms applicable to *North* Italy, which were not compatible with the *contadino's* mores. This kept the school from being an institution of the people. Education was for a cultural style of life the peasant should never aspire to. Nor was there an ideology of change; intellectual curiosity and originality were ridiculed or suppressed. Nor, in spite of a strong desire for material improvement, did the Italian family see a role for education in America. Its anatagonism toward the school, which it manifested so strongly in Italy that it has even become part of their cultural tradition, was carried over to the United States and constituted the main cause for the still current lack of *rapprochement* between the American school and the Italian parents. As they see it, one improves one's circumstances by hard work, perhaps by a lucky strike, but not by spending time in a *school*, taught by *women*, who don't even *beat* the children! Parents feel that the children should contribute to the family budget as soon as possible, and that is years before the time fixed by the American compulsory school attendance law, that unavoidable evil, for the end of their education. Truancy and dropouts are a constant problem, and are often aggravated by the parents, who want the children to help them out in their everyday breadwinning occupations. This attitude toward the economic worth of the child has never been abandoned, and as the child approaches *maturity* (which coincides with working paper age) the parental demands upon his allegiance in his economic role are made in no unmistakable terms. In this respect, the economic welfare of the family always comes first, and the prospect of schooling receives, at best, only secondary consideration.[14]

Aside from these negative attitudes, the general isolation of the Italians as a result of their slow assimilation means that the children, when forced out of the close, familiar home and into school, are ill at ease. Within the home and the rigid family tradition, the child makes a more or less satisfactory adjustment to the family patterns during the preschool age. As soon as he enters school, however, his performance and behavior are evaluated on the basis of local norms and from the point of view of American tradition. The social world in which he recieves his training is condemned by the new world of which he is a part. Therefore, having to live in two worlds, each being highly critical and suspicious of the other, he develops a sense of inferiority, which is strengthened by the school atmosphere. And because of the high prestige accorded American norms and the disrepute in which the Italian culture is still held, even today, the Italian American child tends to reject the familial cultural patterns, although only as far as overt public cultural manifestation is concerned.[15]

Consequently, under this (from an American point of view) topsyturvy system of values, it is the "bad" son who wants to go to school instead of work, the "bad" daughter who wants to remain in school instead of helping mother at home. Such behavior makes the "bad" ones strangers to the family, to such a degree that for the children of the South Italian peasants in New York to get college education in the 1920's and 1930's was a heroic struggle.[16]

Italian Children in New York City[17]

To New York's public school administrators of twenty and thirty years ago, the great burden was the "Italian problem" just as today it is the Negro and the Puerto Rican problem. The two periods have things in common, such as the language difficulty of Italian and Puerto Rican children, and the disdain, even contempt, of many teachers and administrators for the children. But the problems of present day Negro and Puerto Rican children often stem from the weakness of the family, in which a single overburdened and resentful parent is unable to maintain an ordered home life for the child; whereas, by contrast, the problems of the Italian children stemmed from a too strong, too rigorously ordered family, which, as pointed out before, did not value education at all.

At the time of the great waves of Italian immigration, it was extremely difficult to enforce school attendance upon second generation Italian youth. As a consequence, parochial schools operated by the Catholic Church attempted to attract the overflow and imported teachers who were proficient in both English and Italian to help the integration of the children. Many of them are still very active. It must be borne in mind, however, that these schools without exception conduct their classes in English. Unfortunately, as far as the author's research can ascertain, no attempt has ever been made throughout the history of Italian immigration to the United States to instruct Italian Americans in the Italian language. (It is wise to avoid the use of "mother tongue" beacuse of the dialect problem previously discussed.)

Hence, for two long generations, for immigrants and second generation alike, the burden of South Italian culture prevented Italian Americans from making effective use of the public school system in New York. The effects of this heritage, while they are no longer particularly visible in the elementary and high schools, may be seen in city colleges. Eleven percent of the graduates of Hunter College in 1960 were of Italian name, and six percent of the graduates of City College. These proportions are less than one would expect on the basis of the city population of Italian origin.

An interesting observation is that the difference in Italian enrollment between Hunter and City Colleges reflects the role of Catholicism in the process of Italian adaptation to American norms of high education: there are more Italian girls in Hunter because of the succession of Catholic presidents there and because, in accordance with the Catholic preferred practice, Hunter is not coeducational. Priests and other religious advisers therefore suggest Hunter for girls. City College and Brooklyn College, with their radical traditions, are less favored. Around Queens College there has for many years centered a struggle in which Catholic elements have attempted to increase their influence on the administration, for Catholics feel that Queens, which began as a very liberal institution in a borough of homeowners–many of whom were Italian, German, and Irish Catholic–should reflect the attitudes of its communities somewhat more strongly.

As the background of South Italians does not incline them toward the intellectual and speculative college curricula, the majority of boys take degrees in engineering. Education is seen, when its importance is finally recognized, almost exclusively as a means of providing some additional training in one's struggle for a living. Such practical pursuits are also encouraged by American Catholicism, and in the third generation the influence of Catholicism among Italian Americans has become very great. From a collection of village cults with a distinct and marked character that make Italian immigrants very different from German or Irish Catholics the religion of Italian Americans has slowly become incorporated into the large and efficient structure of American Catholicism. Thus, the portion of Italian Americans enrolled in parochial schools increases steadily. The student body of Fordham University, for example, has become half Italian. This new appeal of the Catholic universities is another factor reducing the Italian proportions in the free city colleges.

Bilingual Schooling?

If we take all the previously mentioned facts into consideration, it is very difficult to make an absolute statement as to the desirability of establishing bilingual Italian English programs for Italian Americans.

It is doubtless in the national interest to preserve the Italian cultural heritage in America through its millions of representatives who live within our borders and who constitute a rich language resource.

But the thorny question arises when we look at the other side of the coin. Would it be of any help to *them*? Would it in any way facilitate their assimilation into the mainstream of American life, which should be one of the objectives of bilingual education? Among other factors, would the wide variety of dialects they are accustomed to speak not make standard Italian almost a foreign language to them, as pointed out earlier in this report? In other words, would it not impose a supplementary burden on the child to have to learn subject matter in two languages, one of which only approximately resembles the one he speaks with his family?

The problem is open to discussion, but no matter what the theoretical conclusions may be, Italian American communities should be individually consulted and have the final word in deciding for themselves, after having been presented the pros and cons, whether or not they judge it to be in their interest to take advantage of the possibility of bilingual education for their children.

NOTES

[1] Material in this section has been provided by Tomanio and LaMacchia's *The Italian Community in Bridgeport*, Leonard Covello's excellent article on Italian immigrants in the United States published in Brown and Roucek's *Our Racial and National Minorities*, pp. 357-387, Francis J. Brown's "Italian-Americans" in *One America*, pp. 257-270, and Glazer and Moynihan's section on the Italians in New York in their *Beyond the Melting Pot*, pp. 181-216. A great work on Italian immigration to all countries is Robert F. Foerster's *The Italian Emigration of Our Times*. For Italians in early New York see the United States Federal Writers' Project *The Italians of New York: A Survey*, Lawrence Frank Pisani's *The Italian in America*, and Robert Ernst's *Immigrant Life in New York City, 1825-1863*. For a more detailed description of these books, among others, see the following numbers of our bibliography:

[2] Richard A. Schermerhorn, *These Our People*, p. 235.

[3] Of 2,300,000 Italian immigrants to the United States between 1899 and 1910, 1,900,000 were South Italians. (Abstracts of the Reports of the Immigration Commission, United States Senate, 64th Congress, 3rd session, Document No. 747, Vol. I, 1911, p. 97.) Of these only one percent were in the professions, only 15 percent were in skilled occupations, and 77 percent were farm laborers, that is, without any skill in an urban, industrial setting. By contrast, three times as many North Italians were professionals, and 66 percent were laborers.

[4] For 1899-1910, 21 percent of the Italian immigrants were women, compared with 41 percent of the Hebrew, 52 percent of the Irish, 30 percent of the Polish, 29 percent of the Lithuanians. On the other hand, some new immigrant groups–Greek, South Slavs, Bulgarian, Russian–had even smaller proportions of women.

[5] No statistics of emigration were kept by the United States Bureau of the Census prior to 1908. For that year, however, about 160,000 Italians, i.e. more than half as many as had arrived in the same year, returned to their native land. In 1916, emigration statistics even show that twice as many Italians returned as came.

[6] See John S. and Leatrice D. Macdonald, "Urbanization, Ethnic Groups, and Social Segmentation."

[7] John H. Mariano, *The Second Generation of Italians in New York City*, pp. 12-13, 24.

[8] The source of these figures is *Mother Tongue of the Foreign-Born* (Final Report PC(2)lE) issued by the United States Bureau of the Census. The percentages have been derived by the author.

[9] Herbert H. Vaughan, "Italian Dialects in the United States," p. 435.

[10] Italian dialects may be divided into six major classes, each of which is in turn divided into several subclasses:

1. Gallo Italian (Piedmontese, Ligurian, Lombard, Emilian)
2. Venetian (Veneziano, Trentine, Istrian)
3. Tuscan (Florentine, Western Tuscan, Southern Tuscan)
4. Corsican
5. Central Italian (Northern Latian, Umbrian, Marchigian, Modern Roman)
6. Southern Italian (Southern Latian, Abruzzese, Campanian, Calabrian, Apulian, Sicilian)

This information is drawn mainly from the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, 1965.

[11] Irvin L. Child, *Italian or American? The Second Generation in Conflict*, p. 21.

[12] A few articles to orient the reader interested in this Italian-American dialect are Walburga von Raffler-Engel's "Investigation of Italo-American Bilinguals," Herbert H. Vaughan's "Italian and its Dialects as Spoken in the United States," Anthony M. Gisolfi's "Italo American: What It Has Borrowed From English and What It is Contributing to the American Language," Anthony M. Turano's "The Speech of Little Italy," A. G. Zallio's "The Piedmontese Dialects in the United States," and finally Alberto Menarini's "L'italo-americano degli Stati Uniti," and *Ai margini della lingua*. The latter is a specialist in this fusion of English and Italian which he calls *buffo gergo* (funny jargon).

[13] Most of the material concerning the education of the Italians both in their home country and in America will be found in Leonard Covello's *The Social Background of the Italo-American School Child: A Study of the Southern Italian Family Mores and Their Effect on the School Situation in Italy and America*, edited by Francesco Cordasco and published in 1967. Of particular importance for the purpose of the present monograph are Part Three (Educational Problems) and Part Four, in which the whole book is summarized and conclusions are derived from the study. See especially "Education in Southern Italy," pp. 241-274 (in particular pp. 254-261–Formal education and the popular tradition), and pp. 286-296–Conflict between the American school and the Education concepts of the *contadino*.

Dr. Leonard Covello is one of the great educators in New York City. He has described the whole educational story of the New York Italian American in his autobiography, *The Heart is the Teacher*. He came to an overcrowded tenement in East Harlem from a South Italian town, attended elementary school, and left high school when all his friends did. Then the influence of a neighbor's daughter, and later the settlement house workers and Protestant missionaries, sustained him in returning to high school and going through Columbia University on scholarships. Subsequently, he became a foreign language teacher in DeWitt Clinton High

School, where Italian was not then one of the foreign languages taught. Covello felt that teaching it might do much to enhance the self-image of the Italians boys, which was not bright. He, one of the first teachers of Italian background in the city high schools, and Salvatore Cotillo, the first elected assemblyman—who were both from East Harlem—fought for this change and convinced the board of education to admit Italian in the high school curriculum in 1922, which from then on has been on a parity with other foreign languages. He later became principal of the new Benjamin Franklin High School in East Harlem and continually studied the educational problems of Italian children. He gave a course to teachers at the School of Education of New York University on the background of Italian American children, and worked on his own major study of this thorny problem. Then he was appointed adviser on educational problems to the New York Office of the Migration Division of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, and has since energetically devoted his talents and experience to this thorny problem.

[14] Covello, op. cit., p. 404.

[15] Covello op. cit., p. 405

[16] The situation was different among North or South Italians not of peasant background, but these were very few. From these groups, most college trained professionals were drawn until recently (see United States Federal Writers' Project, *The Italians of New York*, p. 18).

[17] For this section, I am chiefly indebted to Nathan Glazer and Patrick Moynihan, *Beyond the Melting Pot: The Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Jews, Italians, and Irish of New York City.*

APPENDIX N

POLISH SPEAKERS IN THE UNITED STATES

Joan Frost
Research Assistant, USOE Bilingual Design Task

- History of Immigration
- Demographic Data
  - Number of U. S. Speakers of Polish
  - Location of U. S. Speakers of Polish
  - Problems With Nationality, Mother Tongue, and Foreign-Born Statistics
- Major Organizations
  - Roman Catholic Church
  - Polish Roman Catholic Union
  - Polish National Alliance
  - Other Organizations
- Education
  - Public Schools
  - Parochial Schools
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- Vitality of the Polish Language in the U. S. and Cohesion of the Polish American Community
  - Hamtramck, Michigan
  - Language Maintenance – Other Areas
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  - Disadvantages
  - Advantages

HISTORY OF IMMIGRATION

Before 1848 only individual Polish immigrants and travelers arrived in the U. S. Those who stayed were absorbed into the mainstream of American life. The heavy influx of Poles began about 1870 and during that decade 35,000 emigrated from Poland to the U. S. in the hope of economic betterment. Figures for other periods of peak immigration follow:

1881-1890	236,000
1900-1910	875,000
1912-1913	174,365[1]
1899-1930	1,506,645[2]

Mass immigration, checked by the outbreak of World War I, was resumed when peace was won. One important difference distinguished the pre-World War I immigrants from post-war immigrants. The former immigrants were scarcely literate, while the latter were of a higher educational and clutural level.

The national origins quota law of 1924 halted mass immigration. During the period 1924 to World War II the American Slavic population remained static in number, and the second generation became better educated than their parents and began to produce leaders.

Displaced persons (DPs) came in large numbers on a non-quota basis after World War II, and small numbers were admitted on the regular quota. After 1939 many highly educated persons (especially Poles) fled the Nazi sphere of influence. In the years after 1945, one-fifth of all immigrants admitted to the U. S. were refugees. Many special laws, but no national policy, governed their coming to the U. S. For example, under the Displaced Persons Act of 1948, 410,000 persons were granted entrance to the U. S. The provision that 40 percent be nationals or natives of countries annexed by a foreign power heavily weighted refugee immigration in favor of the Baltic countries and east Poland. One-third of the refugees admitted under the 1948 law were Poles; Germans comprised the second largest group, numbering 62,000 or 14 percent of the refugees admitted by this Act. In 1950 the Act was amended to increase the number of refugee immigrants and to provide for the admission of 10,000 Greek refugees and 18,000 Polish war veterans previously residing in Great Britain. The Refugee Relief Act of 1953 (RRA) allowed 189,201 refugees to enter, emphasizing the admittance of Poles, Italians, Germans, Greeks, and other nationalities.[3]

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA:

Number of U. S. Speakers of Polish

According to the *New Catholic Encyclopedia* of 1967, in 1965 there were 40 million Poles, of whom 30 million were living in Poland and 6½ million in the U. S. This country is credited by that source as having the largest Polish population outside Poland. Although other sources (see our Appendix on Demographic Data) estimate Polish speakers in the U. S. as far fewer—between two and three million—Polish is still ranked as the fourth foreign language in the U. S. in number of speakers.

Location of U. S. Speakers of Polish

> *In the decade and a half immediately before the World War [I], the volume of emigration was greatest. Most of these immigrants settled in the new industrial cities, along the Great Lakes, in the Mining and industrial district of Pennsylvania, or on the northeast coast of the United States. The Jewish element found employment most often in the sweated home industries, especially in the tailoring trade in New York. It is interesting to note that of some two million Jews in New York, the majority are of eastern European (and thus largely of Polish) origin.*[4]

Polish settlements still follow the same pattern. Nearly half the Polish Americans live in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. In 1960 Chicago claimed 700,000 residents of Polish descent, making it the American city with the largest Polish community and the second largest Polish city, after Warsaw, in the world. The old Polish colonies in Pittsburgh, Buffalo, Cleveland, and Milwaukee are continuing to increase in population.

Although the majority of Polish immigrants had been landless peasants in their homeland, nearly all men became industrial workers and city dwellers in America. They have been attracted to the automobile plants of Detroit, the coal mines of Pennsylvania, the steel plants of Indiana, and the textile mills of New England, as well as to other industrial areas.

The following figures, it should be noted, refer to the foreign born only.

Mother Tongue (Polish) of the Foreign Born by State
(Source: U.S. Census, 1960)

New York	139,591
Illinois	87,154
Michigan	58,061
Pennsylvania	55,541
New Jersey	53,448
Massachusetts	33,199
Ohio	28,833
Connecticut	27,336
California	21,304
Wisconsin	16,643

Mother Tongue of the Foreign Born by City
(Source: U.S. Census, 1960)

New York City	96,224
Chicago	83,373
Detroit	46,234
Philadelphia	20,505
Buffalo	18,730
Cleveland	15,763
Newark	14,957
Los Angeles-Long Beach	14,912
Pittsburgh	14,230

Problems with Nationality, Mother Tongue, and Foreign-Born Statistics

Government statistics are frequently unreliable because of difficulties with the categorization of nationality, mother tongue, and foreign-born status. Polish immigrants were often classified as Russian, Germans, or Austrians, depending on their point of departure from Europe or on the passport they carried. Poles and Lithuanians were not differentiated. Classification of mother tongue includes persons from countries other than Poland who claimed Polish as the mother tongue: Russia, Austria, Germany, Lithuania, Czechoslovakia, Canada, and "other." Most persons born in Poland speak Polish as their mother tongue. However, there are a good number who speak Yiddish and smaller numbers who are included in "other" and "unclassified."

Political upheavals and shifting national boundaries cause further complications.

MAJOR ORGANIZATIONS

Roman Catholic Church

Most Polish Americans remain Roman Catholic in spite of their separation from the homeland and the passage of time. Most authorities estimate that 90 percent of the total Polish American population belongs, at least nominally, to the Catholic Church. Polish Americans maintained over 830 parishes serving an estimated three million members.

The Church is frequently described as a social and educational center as well as a religious force. And it has been said that religious affiliations disintegrate more slowly among the Poles than among any other immigrant group. The total effect is to maximize the Church's importance in the preservation of the Polish language, the Polish cultural heritage, and the feeling of "Polishness' or ethnic unity.

Polish Roman Catholic Union

Formed in 1874, the PRCU has traditionally taken an active role in the financial support of the Polish American parochial school system. Much of the Church's social and philanthropic work is carried out through the PRCU. The stated goals of the PRCU are to uphold and spread the Catholic faith, to maintain and spread the Polish language, traditions, and spirit, to aid Poland, to help members attain higher positions in the civil and religious fields, and to raise the children in the Polish and Catholic spirit.[5]

Swastek (1952) estimated 150,000 members in over 1,130 societies in 22 states. All PRCU members must profess the Roman Catholic faith. The PRCU publishes *Narod Polski* bimonthly; it is bilingual and Polish predominates over English. Circulation is 87,000. The Educational Aid Department grants colleges scholarships.

Polish National Alliance

The PNA, with headquarters in Chicago, is the largest fraternal organization in existence in the U.S. today. In 1964, Wittke and Wytrwal estimated it had 340,000 members in 1,430 subordinate lodges in 35 states. Organized in the 1870's, its activities today are basically similar to those of the PRCU and PNA. Like the PRCU, the PNA is a service and fraternal organization active in benevolent, educational, recreational, social, and cultural fields.

The PNA also encourages the education of its members. Many Poles flocked to American night schools at the urging of the PNA. Members quickly became discouraged with the teaching methods used and with their inability to understand the language of instruction, Egnlish. Later the PNA offered English and naturalization classes through its local lodges. This time the PNA "utilized the Polish language as the indispensable means of communication until the immigrants mastered the rudiments of English."[6]

> *In communities where no parochial schools existed, or where a sizeable number of Polish American children attended the public school, the 'Wydzial Oswiaty' [Department of Education] organized supplementary schools to teach Polish to the children of PNA members....Children learn the language of their parents....In the year 1908, six schools were organized...in Chicago. Over 1,000 students were enrolled annually in these schools. There were 195 supplementary schools conducted by the PNA, with 14,000 children benefiting annually from these instructions by 1940.*
>
> *The lack of adequate Polish language textbooks was a serious problem for the Polish supplementary schools....The PNA 'Wydzial Oswiaty' prepared and published special textbooks for the Polish language supplementary schools....*
>
> *To prepare adequately trained teachers for the Polish language supplementary schools, the PNA contributed generously to the University of Wiscon-*

> *sin, Northwestern University, DePaul University and others for the establishment of Polish language courses....*[7]

Today the PNA supports Alliance College in Cambridge Springs, Pennsylvania, with an average annual contribution of $80,000 to $120,000. The PNA publishes bimonthly *Zagoda* and daily *Dziennik Zwiazkowy.* It has a library and museum in Chicago.

Other Organizations

Most sources estimate 10,000 Polish American organizations and societies in the U.S. Some of the larger ones are:

Polish American Congress, Aloysius A. Mazewski, president, Headquarters, 1200 North Ashland Avenue, Room 431, Chicago, Illinois 60622. The Congress represents about nine million members of Polish descent in 37 states. This super-federation of American Polish groups was established in 1944 to improve the status of Polish Americans in the U.S. and to fight for Polish independence.

Polish Institute of Arts and Sciences, 59 East 66th Street, New York, New York 10021. This is the main association of Polish educators and scientists and of Americans interested in Poland.

Polish Women's Alliance of America, 1309-1315 North Ashland Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60622. The Alliance has 70,000 members in 1,125 branches in 16 states, publishes *Glos Polek,* and has a museum in Chicago. It was active in war relief work, and today it still aids refugees and DPs, ships clothes, medicine, and equipment to Poland, and provides recreation for youth.

Kosciuszko Foundation, Dr. Eugene Kusielewicz, Vice President, 15 East 65th Street, New York, New York, 10021. This is an intellectual and cultural society; it publishes twice a year *Polish American Studies*, an historical journal, and serves today as a clearinghouse of information.

American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), President, Professor Clayton L. Dawson, University of Illinois.

Since many of the major and minor organizations duplicate each other's services, there is quite a bit of factional rivalry.

EDUCATION

Public Schools

Wytrwal cites Sluszka's statement that 32 public high schools taught Polish in 1953, and public schools that teach Polish as a foreign language are still rare. One such school system is in Hamtramck, Michigan.

Parochial Schools

A network of Polish American Roman Catholic schools spreads throughout the U.S. Saturday and afternoon schools outnumber all-day schools.

Roucek reported 560 Polish Roman Catholic schools with 276,286 pupils and 5,395 teachers in 1933. Wytrwal claimed 540 Polish parochial schools in 1950 and also cited

Sluszka's figure of 63 Polish parochial elementary schools that always teach Polish (1953). One set of parochial schools, in Orchard Lake, Michigan, is revamping its Polish program.

Most authors agree that the Polish Americans supported educational institutions and schools more than any other Slavic group in the U.S. Emphasis has usually been on primary education rather than secondary, but neither has been neglected. As soon as Roman Catholic parishes were organized, schools teaching the traditional faith and language to the young quickly followed. And just as the church had become the focal point of social life and mutual aid, the parish school also created a bond among Polish immigrants. It helped bridge the "generation gap" between the first and later generations of immigrants by preserving the Polish language, encouraging young people to acquire the cultural traditions of parents, and developing a familiarity with the homeland.[8]

In the 1920's Polish parochial schools flourished; at home, the Polish language was used for daily conversation. But when the second generation reached adulthood, "Polonia" began losing its Polishness. "The time was approaching when Polish parochial schools would have to teach Polish as a foreign language."[9]

Higher Education

A relatively large number of universities offer a Slavic language and area studies program. Jacob Ornstein cites the Modern Language Association figures for 1954: Polish was taught at 25 colleges and universities. After Russian, Polish ranked as the second most frequently taught east European language; but the Polish Institute notes that it is a poor second indeed.

Sluszka (cited in Ornstein's article) estimated for 1955 the following enrollments in Polish language courses:

377	in college
3,227	in higher institutions of other types (universities, seminaries)
819	in public schools
189,567	in pre-college parochial schools

The PNA annually contributes a substantial amount to Alliance College, as already mentioned. Some of the other Polish American colleges and seminaries are:

Madonna College, 36600 Schoolcraft Road, Livonia, Michigan 48150
SS. Cyril & Methodius Seminary, Orchard Lake, Michigan 48033
St. Francis Monastery and College, Burlington, Wisconsin 53105
St. Mary's College, Orchard Lake, Michigan 48033

VITALITY OF THE POLISH LANGUAGE IN THE U.S. AND COHESION OF THE POLISH AMERICAN COMMUNITY

Hamtramck, Michigan

Sociological studies of the Polish American community are notable by their absence. One comprehensive study is Arthur Evans Wood's *Hamtramck Then and Now* (1955). Hamtramck–a community where the "minority" culture predominates–is an industrialized, urban city (area 2.2 square miles; population in 1950, 43,355) completely surrounded by, but politically independent of, Detroit. Persons of Polish descent comprised 70 percent of the total population in 1955. Trends show that this population is decreasing in Hamtramck, because of lesser immigration and movement of younger, native-born American Poles to suburban areas.

Local school censuses reported by Wood reveal a remarkable tenacity in the maintenance of the Polish language over a period of years.

1927 - Census of Polish families (father born in Poland)
47.7 percent of respondents spoke Polish only
50.9 percent of respondents spoke English and Polish
1.3 percent of respondents spoke English only

1945 - Census of Polish families
40.3 percent spoke Polish only
50.7 percent spoke Polish and English[10]

> *Always Hamtramck has been a highly self-conscious community, proud of its Polish traditions, resentful of criticism, and confident in its economic advantages.... Though the proportion of the Polish born in the population will decline further in the coming years, at present there seems to be no diminution in the essential Polishness of the community which remains a fascinating cultural island within the confines of the City of Detroit.*[11]

Language Maintenance in Other Areas

Lyra[12] describes Polish as "a non-foreign secondary language." He specifies that it is neither a primary medium of communication nor a foreign language for the Polish American population.

While the language is well known and used among the adult population of Polish descent, there is seemingly little enthusiasm to teach the language to their children today. Wytrwal is pessimistic and concludes: "In America, there was never any undue stress upon the Polish immigrants to give up their language or their institutions. Yet those experienced nationalists...could not sail against the prevailing wind. They lost out in America in the course of two generations."[13]

Nevertheless, on the brighter side, there are some new developments:

1. Revamping of the Polish program in the Orchard Lake, Michigan, schools.
2. Production of a new set of teaching materials for a junior or senior high school course in Polish language and culture by the Foreign Language Innovative Curricula Study (see our Appendix on Directory).
3. Polish language programs supported by Roman Catholic parishes or dioceses, mainly evening classes for adults and after school and Saturday classes for children and adults. Programs supported by local Polish American fraternals.
4. Recent appointment of a citizens' committee in Cleveland, Ohio, to review the city's curriculum in the public schools. The Polish American Congress has made representations about ethnic participation.

Roucek is also optimistic, but guardedly.

> *In contrast to other immigrant groups, the Polish Americans have been able to retain to an unusual degree the Polish culture pattern within the American environment. This is due to the persistence with which the Polish immigrant clings to his national memories, the strength of the Roman Catholic Church, the unselfish willingness with which he supports his own institutions in America, the continued interest of the Polish government and the activities of the Kosciuszko Foundation. On the other hand, it is true that the passage of a decade or two will result in the gradual disappearance of a majority of the distinctive culture traits which are very dear to the first generation immigrant but are regarded with less sentiment by his children....*[14]

TEACHING MATERIALS

Most belong to an early vintage, but there are two recent works worthy of note. The first is the new course for junior or senior high school developed by FLICS. The other is *Beginning Polish*, a two-volume work by Alexander M. Schenker (New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1966. Yale Linguistic Series), which can be used as an intensive one-year course on the college level or as a reference grammar. Volume I (494 pp.) is intended to be either a classroom or a self-instruction text and is arranged in 25 lessons. Volume II (336 pp.) contains drills for each of the lessons in Volume I. Tapes are available through the Center for Applied Linguistics.

A BILINGUAL PROGRAM FOR POLISH?

Disadvantages

Support from within the Polish American community for a bilingual program is open to question. According to many authorities, the greater part of the group seems indifferent to the question of survival of Polish in the U.S. Leadership is needed to transform the latent desire for the maintenance of Polish into enthusiasm for a language instruction program.

It is commonly believed that Slavic languages cannot be learned without unreasonable study.

"...the slow but persistent strengthening of the Iron Curtain and the refusal of the Soviet government to allow free emigration of its citizens has reduced the number of young instructors available...."[15] However, opportunities for recording speech direct from the homeland are much improved by modern technical advancements, and the arrival of large numbers of well educated DPs can perhaps reverse the situation.

According to the popular stereotype the Pole is a dumb, uneducated worker. Wysocki and Cankardas undertook a reaserch study in 1957 to disprove C. A. Brigham's contention (1928) that Poles have an inferior mean IQ. Results led to the conclusion that IQ results for Poles should be normal when a test is developed free of educational, cultural, and socioeconomic factors and is administered to a representative sample.

But Polak (or Polack) jokes are common, at least in the northern states, where most Polish Americans are located.[16] The state of affairs is such that the Polish American Guardian Society and the Americans of Italian Descent, Inc., deemed it necessary to protest. Headlines in *The New York Times* read: "Poles and Italians Threaten Legal Action on Ethnic Jokes" (June 18, 1968, p. 52) and "Ethnic Groups Seek Ban of Slurs on TV" (July 15, 1968, p. 62).

How important this low opinion of our Polish American neighbor will be in determining the amount of public support for Polish bilingual programs is unknown.

Advantages

The very fact that Poles comprise the fourth largest foreign-language group in the United States should point to them as a prospect for bilingual education. Another favorable sign is their increased immigration since the 1965 elimination of the national origin quota system. Polish American families are still compactly located in neighborhoods of industrial cities of the northeast and north central U.S., although their zones of settlement are no longer as solid as they once were.

A private school system already established and schools that already teach Polish may prove to be the most advantageous starting points for a bilingual program, if none such exists. Polish parochial elementary schools apparently continue to receive support from Polish American parents and the Roman Catholic Church,[17] but support for Polish language programs may need revitalization.

NOTES

[1] Wittke, *We Who Built America*, rev. ed., p. 424.

[2] Roucek, *Poles in the United States of America*, p. 10.

[3] See our Appendix on Demographic Data for more complete information. The elimination of the national quota system in 1965 is expected to benefit Poles, together with Italians and Greeks.

[4] Roucek, op. cit., p. 9.

[5] *Wytrwal, America's Polish Heritage*, p. 212.

[6] Ibid., pp. 195-196.

[7] Ibid., pp. 201-202.

[8] Ibid., pp. 159-161.

[9] Ibid., p. 253.

[10] Wood, *Hamtramck Then and Now*, pp. 36, 187.

[11] Ibid., p. 10.

[12] Lyra, "Integration of English Loans in U.S. Polish," p. 303.

[13] Wytrwal, op. cit., p. 287.

[14] Roucek, op. cit., pp. 36-37.

[15] Manning, *A History of Slavic Studies in the United States*, pp. 94-95.

[16] How many Polaks does it take to paint a house? Five—one to hold the brush and four to turn the house.

[17] Recent correspondence casts doubt on support from the Catholic Church. The Polish American Congress petitioned His Holiness Pope Paul VI on August 17, 1967, to prevent American bishops from "suppressing national parishes." The petition requests His Holiness "not to accede to the request of the American Bishops in the matter of national parishes..." and "to convince the Bishops...about the need of encouraging the teaching of national languages in schools established by ethnic parishes, and/or high schools and colleges established by ethnic communities." At this writing the Polish American Congress has not received a reply, although officers have reason to believe that the matter had been brought to the Pope's attention. A copy of the Petition can be secured from the Polish Congress, whose address is above.

For additional information on mother tongue retentiveness and schools of ethnic parishes, see Joshua A. Fishman and Valdimir C. Nahirny, "The Ethnic Group School and Mother Tongue Maintenance" (Chapter 5) and John E. Hofman, "Mother Tongue Retentiveness in Ethnic Parishes" (Chapter 6) in Fishman's *Language Loyalty in the United States*. Greater reference to Polish is made in the preliminary three-volume dittoed report by Fishman, *Language Loyalty in the United States*, Chapter 8, "The Catholic Ethnic Parishes and Their

Schools: 1910-1960; A Trend Analysis" and Chapter 9, "Mother Tongue Retentiveness in Ethnic Parishes," both by John E. Hofman.

APPENDIX O

THE FRENCH–SPEAKING COMMUNITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

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Research Assistant, USOE Bilingual Design Task

- Introduction
- Statistical and Geographical Data
  - The Franco-Americans of New England
    - Distribution
    - A Bilingual Community
    - The Survival of French in New England
    - The Education of the New Generation: Recent Trends
    - Conclusions and Recommendations
  - French in Louisiana and the Mississippi Valley
    - Location and Number of French-Speaking People in Louisiana
    - History and Definitions
    - Louisiana French
    - The Conservation of French in Louisiana
    - French in Education
    - Missouri French
    - New Hopes for the Future
    - Bibliographical References

INTRODUCTION

French has been one of the strongest languages in the United States ever since the colonial times as a result of the ethnocentrism of its American native speakers. However, French-speaking communities in this country show increasing signs of irreversible anglicization, especially among younger representatives, so that urgent steps need be undertaken immediately to revitalize French and give support to those who fight for its maintenance, in order to conserve a powerful and irreplaceable language resource in the national interest.

The estimated million speakers of French of Canadian origin cluster in the six New England states, along the Canadian border, where they like to be called Franco-Americans (F-A's) and pride themselves in having developed a bilingual culture. In Louisiana, where approximately 450,000 people continue to speak French natively, they are composed of: Cajuns (derived from "Acadian"), who are the descendants of some 4,000 Acadians who were expelled from Nova Scotia in 1755; Creoles, whose ancestry goes back to the original settlers; and Gumbos, descendants of Negro slaves.

STATISTICAL[1] AND GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

In 1940, French was numerically the sixth strongest non-English mother tongue (N–EMT)[1] in the United States, after German, Italian, Polish, Spanish, and Yiddish in that order. Of the 1,412,060 individuals claiming French as a mother tongue, 359,520 were foreign born, 533,760 native of foreign or mixed parentage, and 518,760 natives of native parentage. In 1960, French had risen to the fifth place, preceded by Italian, Spanish, German, and Polish, in that order, and followed by Yiddish (the same languages having remained the "big six"), although the number of speakers had fallen to 1,043,220, about a third of whom were foreign-born, representing a decline of 26.1 percent since 1940.

There are fewer and fewer foreign born American residents who claim French as their mother tongue. The figure has dropped steadily from 528,842 (5 percent of total foreign-born residents) in 1910 to 330,220 (4 percent) in 1960. The chart below is a breakdown of this last figure in the fifteen states where foreign-born French speakers are most populous:

Rank	State	French-mother-tongue foreign-born residents of state	Percentage of total foreign-born population of state
1	Massachusetts	59,032	10.2
2	New York	56,412	2.5
3	California	34,765	2.6
4	Connecticut	23,295	8.5
5	Maine	21,091	35.0
6	New Hampshire	17,640	40.0
7	Michigan	15,951	3.0
8	Rhode Island	14,542	17.1

Rank	State	French-mother-tongue foreign-born residents of state	Percentage of total foreign-born population of state
9	New Jersey	10,898	1.8
10	Vermont	9,129	39.6
11	Florida	9,048	3.3
12	Illinois	8,585	1.3
13	Pennsylvania	7,039	1.2
14	Ohio	5,233	1.3
15	Texas	3,223	1.1

The greatest concentration is found in the Northeastern part of the country, with some 220,000 foreign-born FMT's. However, Louisiana, the great French State, ranks 23rd with 1,642 (6 percent). No recent survey has been made to determine the exact number of French speakers in the Mississippi Valley.

The breakdown by large metropolitan areas of French foreign-born follows:

Rank	Metropolitan Area	State	French-mother-tongue foreign-born residents of area	Percentage of total foreign-born population of area
1	New York	N.Y.	40,898	2.2
2	Los Angeles-Long Beach	Calif.	17,169	2.6
3	Boston	Mass.	15,856	5.0
4	Providence-Pawtucket	R.I. Mass.	15,595	18.3
5	Detroit	Mich.	12,276	3.4
6	Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	Mass.	9,770	20.0
7	San Francisco-Oakland	Calif.	9,051	3.0
8	Hartford	Conn.	6,610	10.8
9	Chicago	Ill.	6,496	1.1

Rank	Metropolitan Area	State	French-mother-tongue foreign-born residents of area	Percentage of total foreign-born population of area
10	Worcester	Mass.	4,290	12.3
11	Washington	D.C.-Md.-Va.	4,224	5.0
12	Philadelphia	Pa.-N.J.	4,208	1.4
13	Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	N.J.	3,440	2.3
14	Miami	Fla.	3,120	2.7
15	Newark	N.J.	2,758	2.0

In spite of the decreasing number of American native speakers of French, statistics indicate that it will soon rank fourth, after Spanish, German, and Italian, in that order, and before Polish and Dutch.

The Franco-Americans of New England

Distribution

George F. Thériault's "The Franco-Americans of New England"[2] provides a short essay on distribution:

> *We need first to grasp the distribution of this population in the whole of New England, to sketch in the broad outlines of their regional ecology. We are handicapped by the fact that the United States [1940] census covers only the first two generations, whereas the third and fourth generations are vitally important for our purposes. Precise statistics are not available, but reasonably accurate estimates can be made. For our purposes it will only be important to delineate the most general demographic characteristics of* la Franco-Américanie.
>
> *The Franco-Americans are by no means evenly distributed in New England; this fact is of crucial importance in understanding* la survivance. *They are found in appreciable numbers in predominantly rural states such as Maine and Vermont, and they have a considerable representation in such rural and "small*

town" occupations as logging, paper milling, and dairy and potato farming, but they are essentially and primarily an urban group. Massachusetts, heavily industrialized and urban, has more than twice as many Franco-Americans as Maine, which ranks second among the New England states in the number of Franco-Americans in its population. There follow in descending order New Hampshire, in the third place, then Rhode Island, Connecticut and Vermont.

The rural urban distribution of Franco-American stock within these states attests to the essentially urban character of la Franco-Americanie. *In Massachusetts the percentage of Franco-American stock of urban residence is 91.1; in Rhode Island it is even higher, 94.4. In New Hampshire it is 77.5; Connecticut, 68.6; Maine, 63.7, and Vermont, 38.5. A reasonable generalization from these figures*[3] *and other data would appear to be that four Franco-Americans out of five live in an urban environment.*

The largest urban concentrations of F-A's range from 30,000 to 40,000 persons.[4] Woonsocket, Rhode Island; Fall River, Massachusetts;[5] and Manchester, New Hampshire, are in this category. Ranging from 20,000 to 30,000 are such communities as New Bedford, Lowell, and Worcester, Massachusetts, and Lewiston, Maine. A considerable number of communities fall in the 10,000-20,000 range; representatives of these are Biddeford, Main; Fitchburg, Haverhill, and Lawrence, Massachusetts; Berlin and Nashua,[6] New Hampshire; and Pawtucket and Central Falls, Rhode Island. A large number of communities are found in the 5,000 to 10,000 range, including Auburn, Maine; Burlington, Vermont;[7] and West Warwick, Rhode Island. Communities with Franco-Americans ranging from 1,000 to 5,000 are very numerous. Since the end of the "great migration"[8] half a century ago, F-A's maintain their proportion of 7 percent of the whole population of New England.

A Bilingual Community

Among the above mentioned northeastern communities where F-A's abound, Woonsocket, Rhode Island, on Blackstone River, justly claims the title of F-A capital. The headquarters of *l'Union Saint-Jean-Baptiste d'Amérique,* the vital organ of *La Franco-Américanie,* is located there.

More than 60 percent of Woonsocket's inhabitants are of French-Canadian descent. They maintain emphatically that their strong attachment to the French language, its culture and traditions, is not inconsistent with their loyalty to America nor with full acquaintance with American institutions and the English language. They are essentially a bilingual people. They speak French even in the third generation, but they also speak English even in the very first generation. There is vigorous resistance to efforts to disregard or destroy the values in culture, convenience, and control which depend upon the preservation of the French language and tradition. Bessie Bloom Wessel, in her *Ethnic Survey of Woonsocket, Rhode Island,*[9] writes in 1931:

> *French Canadians who came under our observation expect their children to be bilingual as a matter of course. Native born children know English and are being taught French and French traditions.*
>
> *This biculturalism is not limited to the use of French as a language. There is an ardor for all things French. Nor is the devotion necessarily French Canadian. The Canadian flag is rarely exhibited, but the French flag is seen alongside the flag of the United States. To the French the former is the symbol of culture; the latter, of his country. Loyalty to Canada as his homeland is seldom heard expressed, but loyalty to French culture and American citizenship is urged in every page of their literature. This is a conscious policy endorsed and fostered by those who represent leadership in the group. Its manifestation in Woonsocket is obviously typical of the situation in other communities.*

In the thirties, two-thirds of the public and parochial school population was of French Canadian descent, 90 percent of all native born individuals in the community could speak both languages equally well, and 50 percent claimed bilingualism in the home.

The Survival of French in New England[10]

Compared with most other immigrant languages on the American scene, only the Spanish-speaking Mexican Americans of the Southwest have approached the degree of success of the F-A's in New England, as far as bilingualism and biculturalism are concerned. As their rallying cry, "Qui perd sa langue perd sa foi,"[11] proves definitively, they are determined to keep their French cultural heritage and ancestral traditions alive. This remarkable achievement is due in large part to the admirable efforts of the first F-A's who early established a vast network of interlocking religions, educational, cultural, and fraternal organizations. As soon as they became numerous enough in any community, their spiritual needs were attended to by a resident priest who spoke their language. Under the leadership of a clergy of their own ethnic background, they built Catholic churches and schools in which French was extensively used, and they staffed them with nuns belonging to religious orders founded in Canada or in France. They support several societies whose primary function is to promote ethnic survival, and they have a fairly active French language (and bilingual) periodical press and scores of radio stations, carrying special brief French programs.

The Societies

The following are the most active and influential fraternal societies at the present time:

1) **L'Union Saint-Jean-Baptiste d'Amérique** in Woonsocket, Rhode Island, the strongest, provides funds for schools and F-A activities and promotes education by granting scholarships to its needy members. It also has a well furnished research center in F-A history, the Mallet Library.
2) **La Société Historique Franco-Américaine**, founded in Boston in 1899, draws its

membership from all parts of New England and is considered to be the best coordinator of the various F-A cultural interests and the most important medium of cultural exchange and creativity still remaining for this ethnic group. It holds meetings twice a year in Boston, where distinguished F-A speakers are invited, and issues a widely read annual *Bulletin* in French, in which all important events of F-A life are related.

3) **L'Association Canado-Américaine**, whose headquarters are in Manchester, New Hampshire, owns the most complete collection of F-A documents and correspondence dating from the early immigrant period to the present day in its Lambert Library. Its organ is *Le Canado- Américain.*

4) **Le Comité de Vie Franco-Américaine** and its subsidiary groups dispersed throughout New England, such as *L'Association des Professeurs de Français Franco-Américains, L'Alliance Radiophonique Française, La Fédération Féminine Franco-Américaine* and the *Clubs Richelieu.*[12]

Other important organizations are *Le Conseil de la Vie Française en Amérique, La Société de l'Assomption, La Société des Artisans*, and *La Société Jacques-Cartier*. Besides performing the ordinary functions of mutual insurance companies, these societies make a notable contribution to the cultural life of F-A's by awarding hundreds of scholarships to their young ones so that they may obtain the higher education which will enable them to become leaders of their own ethnic group in the future.

The Press

The French language press, once relatively considerable, has declined so catastrophically in the last fifty years that any extrapolation of the trend would indicate that it is bound to disappear entirely in the near future. There were not more than 10 periodical publications appearing entirely in French in New England in 1960[13] (as compared to 22 in 1930), with a total circulation of 86,000. *L'Indépendant* of Fall River, Massachusetts, was discontinued in 1963, marking the end of the last French language daily in the United States. The weekly *La Liberté* of Fitchburg, Massachusetts, has become bilingual the past few years, with English gaining more and more ground with every issue. Among those which seem to resist in spite of severe financial problems are *L'Action* of Manchester, New Hampshire, *L'Impartial* of Nashua, New Hampshire, *La Messager* of Lewiston, Maine, *La Justice* of Holyoke, Massachusetts, and *Le Travailleur* of Worcester, Massachusetts, which seems to be the French newspaper most willingly read.

French Broadcasting

L'Allliance Radiophonique Française, founded in 1950, is a loosely federated organization of some 25 F-A directors of French language radio broadcasts in New England. They own about 40 stations offering approximately 100 hours of French programs per week.[14] These programs vary from serious discussions and the enacting of French classics to soap operas and folk music, and enjoy great popularity, although some have become bilingual to satisfy the demands of sponsors interested in a wider and younger listenership.

The Schools

Parochial schools have always been regarded by F-A leaders as the backbone of resistance to assimilation. In spite of strong opposition from within and without the F-A fold, the number of F-A parochial elementary schools has continued to grow. In 1910 there were 114 such schools and in 1960 there were 179, an increase of 57 percent. These schools reached their peak enrollment in 1930 with a 66.5 percent increase over that of 1910. After 1930 the enrollment decreased (first by 7 percent in the decade 1930-1940, and then by 17 percent in that of 1940-1950), although the number of schools was still multiplying. During this period, pressures were exerted upon religious orders of brothers and nuns to Americanize their schools, to give their teachers better training in English, and to update their methods and their equipment. Most of them agreed to orient their endeavors in this new direction in parochial school education. As a result, the enrollment halted its downward trend and increased by 10 percent from 1950 to 1960, but unfortunately their 253 institutions of learning, including seven liberal arts colleges, 51 high schools, and 195 elementary schools now offer not more than *one* hour of French each day in all grades and all levels.[15] The language is unfortunately not spoken in the home as much as it used to be, and Lemaire[16] reports that in one of the six F-A parochial schools of Fall River, Massachusetts, only one student could understand French!

Assumption College,[17] Worcester, Massachusetts

In 1904 the Assumptionist Fathers decided to found a liberal arts college where F-A's might send their children for advanced French training. The F-A elite graduated from this school, the only accredited institution of higher learning in this country where a foreign language was systematically used as a medium of instruction, "the great bilingual college of the United States."[18] The Fathers had to deal with thorny financial problems to maintain the school and try to attract as many students as they could. The results of the experience were not as encouraging as they had expected. The enrollment went from 3 in 1910 to only 182 in 1950, until the administrators had to face reality and make a serious decision in 1952: let English be the vehicle of instruction. From then on, obviously thanks to this "new orientation," the number of students attending the college increased steadily and is expected to reach 850 in 1970. Financial support from its alumni is helping to enlarge the school, but French occupies a smaller and smaller place in the curriculum, although the Fathers are perfectly bilingual, being all of French, Canadian, or F-A ascendance. Only 21 students out of the 500 who took the Assumption Prep[19] examination in 1960 knew enough French to be able to follow a course in French classics, and if the College was now to admit only those students who have an adequate knowledge– not to mention mastery – of their supposed mother tongue, its doors would not stay open very long.

New England French

The average native of France has little if any difficulty in understanding educated F-A's, save for some minor problems of a lexical and phonetic nature. There are many places in France where the language customarily spoken by a majority of the population deviates much further from standard French than does the French Canadian dialect spoken in New England.[20] However, the quality of their speech must be somewhat improved. Charles Bruneau writes in 1936:[21]

> *J'avais été frappé de constater, chez les Canadiens Français des Etats-Unis...un curieux état phonétique. Il arrivait que l'articulation française, que l'accent français, que le rythme même de la phrase fussent "anglicisés": c'était une curieuse impression d'entendre les mots français, les formes françaises ainsi camouflés... Dans une courte note publiée dans les* Mélanges *Chlumsky, j'avais baptisé cet état de choses du nom de'hantise phonétique! Cette formule assez énigmatique signifie qu'un sujet bilingue, en s'exprimant dans l'une des langues qu'il possède est* hanté *par l'autre langue, si bien qu'en croyant articuler une langue, il en articule une autre.*

Thériault,[22] points out the regrettable tendency among younger F-A's to alternate French and English words and phrases in their everyday speech:

> *It is still possible for members of the older generation to transact business, pray, read newspapers, and converse with their neighbors exclusively in French. One may still find individuals who have lived in these communities forty or fifty years without having learned English. When, however, one listens to the middle class persons, youth, and little children, the speech is very different. It is not uncommon to find among the middleaged an easy and rapid alternating use of French and English words and phrases with no apparent awareness of switching from one language to another...Among the young, English tends to be the language in use. French may be understood, and frequently is, but is much less frequently used.* Very often one finds a marked reluctance to speak French.

The Education of the New Generation: Recent Trends

The truth is that F-A French, as well as Canadian French, with its markedly dialectal character as far as pronunciation goes and its abundant anglicisms and archaisms, is perfectly "correct," as it is appropriate to a certain time and place. "Les langues," has once written Ernest Renan, "sont des formations historiques."[23] Living languages are not a static media, but are subject to frequent changes, which are all the more remarkable when a tongue has been transplanted into new territories. Languages in contact with one another inevitably undergo certain transformations and tend to deviate from what is often called their "standard" form, with reference to what is considered to be the "authority," which decides which words, which spelling, which pronunciation, which structures are "correct"–in our case the French Academy of Paris. This is perfectly normal, and it would be wrong to say that F-A's speak "bad" French. But for practical purposes, to enable F-A's to represent the United States in the 31 franco-phone countries of the world and communicate in the only form of their language that is acceptable in the educated world outside their own ethnic *milieu* without being in an inferior position, it is highly desirable that they be taught *modern* French. As Gerard J. Brault, a F-A scholar, points out,[24] it is as erroneous from a pedagogical point of view to demand a total abandonment of speech patterns acquired for long years and a brutal switch to other habits as it is to teach a form of French that will never be recognized as "correct." The transition must therefore be slow, but perfect.

A similar assessment of the situation is represented by Edward F. Booth, State Supervisor of Modern Foreign Languages, in a letter sent to Congressman William D. Hathaway of Maine.[25] Mr. Booth states that as a teacher of French in three Maine communities having a large population of F-A's, he found the quality of the spoken French to be extremely poor. "Furthermore," he adds, "as a state supervisor of modern foreign languages I have found this to be true elsewhere in the state." He goes on to speak of the F-A's' isolation from standard French and the desirability of educational measures to improve and strengthen the French natively spoken in this country. Along the same line of thought, Maine's Commissioner for Education, Willian Logan, Jr., writes: "thus it seems that these young people of French descent suffer from a double problem–*THEY CAN SPEAK NEITHER FRENCH NOR ENGLISH CORRECTLY.*[26] *Ways to improve* their English and to preserve their French heritage and speech are urgently needed." Congressman Hathaway, in a statement made before the General Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Education and Labor (Washington, D.C., June 28-29, 2967),[27] and Senator Edmund S. Muskie of Maine, in a letter to Senator Ralph Yarborough of Texas,[28] reported the many difficulties and obstacles encountered by French-speaking pupils of Canadian descent in their State. Both concluded that something must be done immediately to improve the lamentably low educational opportunities.

Before 1961, no official support or encouragement had ever been given by the federal government to any program for the instruction of F-A children in their mother tongue, resulting in an inestimable loss of a powerful linguistic resource. The only education given in French was through the numerous parochial schools or in regular foreign language classes, where instruction was too often inappropriate because it was designed for English-speakers or because it was taught by teachers whose only French was "school-book French."[29]

Experience has shown that the ideal mother-tongue teacher is a member of the same ethnic group as his students, but his effectiveness depends as much upon his Americanness and modernity as upon his pedagogy and linguistic competence. Students do not sympathize readily with teachers who are foreign to the American language and culture and too prone to praise "Old Country" values and customs.[30] Lemaire[31] points out that the F-A student is willing to learn to express himself correctly in French if this action is interpreted as a sign of culture and not a sign of lack of aptitude for English or lack of adaptation to the American life.

Three NDEA Institutes for Franco-American Teachers of French

Qualified teachers of standard French for FMT's were (and still are) so urgently needed that in the summers of 1961, 1962, and 1963, three institutes for F-A teachers, sponsored by the National Defense Education Act, were held in Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine (except for the last one held in Assumption College), and conducted respectively by Professor Gérard J. Brault, now of Pennsylvania State University, Professor Alfred LeBlanc of the same, and Professor Théopile Martin of Assumption College. The purpose of these institutes was to prepare educators who were themselves of French Canadian extraction to teach standard French to pupils of the same ethnic background, using methods and materials designed espec-

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ially for their needs. Brault notes that his 1961 institute "marked the first time in history that an ethnic group was accorded federal support in its struggle to preserve its linguistic heritage."[32] The forty participants of each studied the basic lexical and phonetic difficulties F-A's encounter when transferring to standard French and prepared an experimental French text and tapes for use with their students (see list in bibliography, under Brault), in order to take full advantage of the one hour during which French is still taught in F-A parochial schools every day.

To conclude the section, we reproduce here Lemaire's[33] "six motivational factors agreed upon as being of importance in attracting young Franco-Americans to study French:"

- i) Pupils must be assured that the course will be interesting and worthwhile.
- ii) They must be made to feel that they already know a good deal of French and that, with a little effort and good will, they can speak as well as any "Parisian."
- iii) They must be taught the highlights of French-Canadian history with appropriate references to France, so as to be led to love their language and *not be ashamed of their F-A background*, as is unfortunately all too often the case.
- iv) Parents should *encourage* their children to learn *standard* French.
- v) Classes should be organized *homogeneously*, as there is nothing more dispiriting for those F-A students who have had eight years of French in a parochial school than to be placed with pupils who have had no French at all, in a French I class in high school.
- vi) The most important motive is the appeal of serving the *national* interest of their country.

Mr. Elphège E. Roy, Coordinator of Foreign Languages for the public schools of Manchester, New Hampshire, informs the author in a personal letter dated January 5, 1969, that "great efforts are being made since 1961 to improve the teaching of French to Franco-American students, especially those in the parochial schools." He goes on to say that through the Franco-American Teachers Association, founded by him in 1963 and of which he is president, workshops, retraining courses, even French institutes, privately financed, have been organized, and that the Quebec Government, through its Ministry of Cultural Affairs, has given them to date $10,000 to help them in their endeavors.

Conclusions and Recommendations

If French is to be preserved in the United States, strong and effective language maintenance steps must be undertaken or there must be an unusually large immigration movement to revitalize it and compensate the losses, or both.[34] Unfortunately this occurs at a time when our relations with France are weakened. The author would like to express here an opinion that is shared by many sociologists studying ethnic groups in foreign societies. If it is true that American minority groups were never officially restricted from maintaining their cultural heritage through schools, churches, organizations, or publications, it is also true that no activities for this purpose have ever been encouraged and assisted, and the process of Americanization has been so rapid and irresistible that "more linguistic and cultural treasures were buried and eroded due to mutual permissiveness and apathy than would ever have been the case had repression and opposition been attempted."[35] Along this same line of thought, an interesting theory concerning the survival of French in New England (up to now, at least) is provided by Professor David B. Walker of Bowdoin College who asserts[36] that F-A's would have been quickly assimilated had it not been for the Irish challenge which prompted them to organize. As it was, most first generation F-A's believed that their language had to be preserved because their identity, their faith, and hence their salvation depended on it. In fusing the religious and ethnic norms, a powerful emotional force was generated which permeated nearly all facets of F-A life and made this minority group one of the least assimilable of all the ethnic groups in America. Gérard J. Brault states that F-A's, after several generations of withstanding seemingly irresistible sociological forces, still constitute an astonishingly ethnocentered group. Others believe that the upsurge of the French Canadians in Quebec has some stimulating effect on the F-A's.

Be it as it may, all specialists unanimously agree that the French language has survived so far unbelievably well in that corner of the United States in spite of all attempts to integrate its speakers. However, as we turn toward the future, prospects are not very encouraging, and surveys indicate that French will slowly but surely disappear altogether from New England. Thériault finds that the institutional structure of *La Franco-Américanie* is showing increasing signs of weakening and that evidence points to further weakening in the future. "This process is unlikely to be reversed," he adds. "It is equally unlikely that it will be slowed. On the contrary it will probably be more rapid in the next twenty-five years than it has been in the past generation." And his general conclusion is that: "Whatever the future holds in store for the Franco-Americans of New England, their eighty years' long experiment in survival in the midst of a society and culture as kinetic as that of the United States is no inconsiderable testimony to the vitality and staying power of 'notre héritage'."[37] Lemaire points out that French is doubtless receding in New England, but concludes on an optimistic note:

> *French, therefore, will continue to be spoken in New England; and though it will not be used as widely as before, it will be of a more generally acceptable quality...Whereas many predicted that the history of the French language would come to a close in this generation, it seems rather to have taken on a new aspect and to be proceeding in an unexpectedly hopeful direction.*[38]

French in Louisiana and the Mississippi Valley

Location and Number of the French-speaking People of Louisiana

"The French-speaking people of Louisiana occupy a triangular area in the southern part of the state. The base of the triangle is the Gulf of Mexico. The left side is formed by a line running from the southwestern corner of the state to the junction of the Red and Mississippi Rivers; and the right side by a straight line from this junction to New Orleans and the Gulf. In this area, it has been estimated, there are nearly 600,000 French-speaking people,[30] representing somewhat less than 50 percent of the state's white population. Most of them live in settlements on small farms fronting on bayou streams."[40]

French can still be heard today in Bayou Têche and Bayou Lafourche, in parts of the old Attakapas and Opelousas, northward from what is now St. John the Baptist Parish into Pointe Coupée and Baton Rouge, in New Orleans and farther south along the Mississippi River, and on the Bayou Terre aux Boeufs and Terrebonne, among other places.

There are relatively few French speakers in the Northern part of the state. They cluster in Natchitoches, in the village of Rambin, and the DeSoto parish. During the depression, great numbers of Louisiana French speakers moved into East Texas, so that there are many French-speaking communities in that area, Port Arthur coming in first place.

History and Definitions. What is a Creole?

The word *Creole* means a pure white descendant of the French or Spanish settlers of the Colonial Period. As an adjective, it applies to their manners, usages, inventions, etc., as *creole* customs, *creole* horses, *creole* cooking, and has an implication of quality and superiority. Consequently, in demographic literature and in official documents, the term is usually reserved for immigrants who came to Louisiana prior to the Louisiana Purchase[41] (1803) and their descendants. It connotes select upperclass groups.

The origin of the word dates back to 1520, when the term *Criollo* (Creole) was invented by the Conquistadores to distinguish their pureblooded offspring, born in the colonies of South America or the Indies, from children of mixed blood born in the mother country. The French adopted the word and changed it to Creole. Jean Bossu, in his *Travels in the Interior of North America, 1751-1762*, wrote in 1751 that the Creoles are those that are born there of a French man and a French woman or of European parents.[42]

What is a Cajun?

After the British had acquired Acadia in 1713, some Acadians refused to swear allegiance to the British crown and were consequently expelled from their homes on September 5, 1755, and repatriated to various British American colonies. By 1790, about 4,000 of them had found their way to Southern Louisiana, settling in the fertile bayou lands in the vicinity of the Gulf of Mexico. In this area, their descendants, from then on called *Cajuns*, still raise cattle and small crops of cotton, corn, sugar cane, and sweet potatoes, and practice home arts such as spinning and weaving. They are noted for their industry and hospitality.

However, the term *Cajun* has become somewhat derisive, and actually many of those to whom it is applied are not of Acadian descent but of German, French, Spanish, and various other European ancestries. On the other hand many of the actual descendants of Acadians are not *Cajuns* in the present sense of the word. Of course, the word *Cajun* derives from *Acadian*,[43] but by formal definition it now refers to all native speakers of French being born in Southern Louisiana. It should be noted that it has status implications since colloquially it is further restricted to designate those in socially and economically inferior positions.

Louisiana French

There are three main kinds of French in Louisiana, which are as different from one another as are the classes of people who speak them: Creole French, Acadian French, and "patois nègre." Even today, the great majority of the French-speaking people are unable to read or write the language, so that there is no commonly accepted standard: it is an exclusively oral language which has been miraculously kept alive during some 300 years of separation from the mother country.

Creole French, spoken mainly in New Orleans and Baton Rouge, varies but slightly from standard French as far as syntax, pronunciation, and vocabulary are concerned.

Acadian French is a somewhat peculair dialect which is closely related to the *patois* of Normandy, Picardy, Saintonge, and the region about Paris. The speech of the Louisiana Acadians varies considerably in different localities. For example, the English word "repairs" is in the French of one town "réparation," in another "réparage," and in still another "réparement!" It is fairly difficult for a linguist to study this dialect as its speakers are apt to *hide* from outsiders.

The *"patois nègre,"* or *Gumbo*, is a negroid jargon "quite unintelligible to all but themselves or a student of their specialty."[44] It is spoken chiefly in St. Martinsville, Breaux Bridge, Cecilia, New Hoads, and Edgard, by *both* white and colored, although it had been evolved by the Negro slaves in the original settlements.

The basic differences between Creole French and Cajun French—both of which are indubitably *French*—are stated by the unknown author of a manuscript discovered in the Louisiana State Historical Museum:

> *Le français de la Louisiane se présente sous deux formes: le* créole *qui, à part certains changements, ne diffère essentiellement ni par la prononciation ou la syntaxe ni par le vocabulaire du français général et littéraire...et l'*acadien *ou* cadien...*qui offre beaucoup de particularités à tous les égards.*
>
> *Le* créole *est le français transporté directement de France et gardé des contaminations par le soin qu'on a pris de parler correctement, par les excellentes écoles et académies où le français le plus pur était enseigné par des professeurs distingués, par le commerce ininterrompu avec la métropole et le fait qu'on envoyait beaucoup de jeunes gens en France faire leurs études.*
>
> *L'acadien, au contraire, est arrivé du Canada, où il avait subi déjà quelques modifications, et auquel ont manqué des rapports continus avec la France.*
>
> *Même si de nombreux mots anglais se sont incrustés dans la langue française acadienne au cours du 19ème siècle, sa qualité essentiellement fran-*

> *çaise n'en a pas été sérieusement entamée* [*l'influence des autres dialectes, indiens, allemands, espagnols, a été négligeable.*] *C'est qu'on est en présence d'un peuple déterminé à conserver son parler malgré les difficultés et malgré les influences hostiles qui l'entourent.*[45]

However, there are more and more factors leading toward linguistic unification, and these three dialects are steadily undergoing transformations leading toward a "Louisiana French." Radio programs in Louisiana French are in general setting a high linguistic standard and are a powerful agent of unification.[46] Since the majority of the French-speaking people is illiterate in French, an hypothetical French press could not play a great role (as a matter of fact, the last French newspaper in Louisiana, *L'Abeille*, died in 1923).

The Conservation of French in Louisiana

Not only have Creoles and Cajuns perpetuated their own language and culture, but they have also succeeded in absorbing most of the diverse Anglo-Saxon, Spanish, and Germanic ethnic elements which have settled among them, as Lynn and Parenton, two sociologists and specialists in a acculturation problems, have attempted to demonstrate![47] The degree to which this integration has taken place has long astonished sociologists.

In Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers, seminaries, colleges, convents, monasteries, and hospitals were founded in the earliest colonial days by the Jesuits, the Récollets, the Secular clergy, the Ursulines, Hotel Dieu, and the Congregation and Hospital Général nuns, which firmly established the French scholastic tradition. But none of these institutions existed among the Acadians, who were left to themselves, isolated except for the pastoral guidance of visiting missionaries. The family, not the parish, was the center of group activities. This is why the situtation of French in Louisiana is so weak and unstable: Creoles, Cajuns, and Gumbos *do* want to preserve their cultural heritage, but they are not as organized as the F-A's of New England and as near as the latter to the lighthouse of French culture in America. There are relatively few active Creole organizations, among which are *L'Athênée Louisianais,*[48] *L'Union Française, Les Enfants de la France*, and *Les Vétérans Français. Les Comédiens Français* present several plays each year at *Le Petit Théâtre du Vieux Carré* in New Orleans. In Lafayette there is an active French organization, *France-Amérique de la Louisiane-Acadienne*," as well as a French students' club at Southwestern Louisiana University.

French in Education

Neither Gumbo nor Cajun has yet been dignified by use for formal schooling purposes; and Creole, which once profited from constant contact with city and academic affairs, has now been effectively cornered or brought to bay too, for there are no longer any schools in Louisiana, either parochial or public, where French is used as medium of instruction. The Louisiana constitution states specifically that all subjects shall be taught in English except for foreign languages as such, and until very recently public schools attempted to achieve greater English literacy by waging a battle against French. "I was sent home on my first day at school to write 200 times 'I must not speak French on the school grounds!' " recalls Dr. Hosea Phillips of the University of Southwestern Louisiana at nearby Lafayette—an expert in Louisiana French and a native of the area.[49]

One of the great obstacles to the conservation and development of French in Louisiana is caused by that false sense of *shame* that many people have regarding their French. Instead of viewing their knowledge of the language as an asset that offers new horizons, they tend to view it as a hindrance, never speak French to French-speaking visitors from outside their *milieu*, and hate to be caught by outsiders speaking their dialect. This attitude is often due to the mistaken zeal of some French teacher who warned her class that their French was "bad."[50] Pascal Poirier, a scholar of French in America, writes:[51]

> *La syntaxe du parler des Acadiens et des Canadiens est essentiellement la syntaxe française. Notre langue, conséquemment, est celle de la France. Les mots, les tournures, les locutions que l'on entend dans la bouche de nos paysans, et que l'on prend pour du patois, ont été apportés de France, ont été pris pour du vieux langage, sont d'anciens vocables, souvent excellents. Nous les avons conservés religieusement; ils font partie de notre patrimoine. Tant pis pour le français officiel s'il ne les a pas recueillis dans son Dictionnaire. La langue s'est appauvrie d'autant.*

But the Cajuns do not know that, feel exactly the opposite, and their low opinion of their French is most favored by the hostile attitudes of their all-American neighbors.

As Marius Barbeau puts it: "For a French-speaking observer from France or Canada, it is a pleasure to observe local terms or expressions. Yet these are not easily secured, for the Cadjuns [sic] are very shy of their dialect. They have not forgotten Theodore Roosevelt's dictum: 'one country, one language!' *And having no French schools, the new generation abandons its mother tongue. It is spoken only at home and mostly by the old folk.*"[52]

Missouri French[53]

There were in 1939 some 600 French-speaking families in the region of Old Mines-*La vieille Mine*—a quiet little village in the foothills of the Missouri Ozarks, 65 miles south of St. Louis. These Creoles are the direct descendants of the Canadian *coureurs de bois*, soldiers, and settlers who established themselves in the Illinois country and founded between 1699 and 1760 the five French villages of Cahokia, Kaskaskia, Nouvelle Chartres, Sainte Philippe, and Prairie du Rocher on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, and that of Sainte Geneviève on the Missouri side of the river.[54]

Missouri French-speakers are victims of what Joseph M. Carrière calls "idiomatic hallucination," that is, they transliterate into French idiomatic constructions belonging to English, which gives to their dialect a very strange aspect: expressions like "appeler pour" (to call for), “c‘est tout ben” (it’s all right), “c‘est laissé à lui de faire ça” (it is left up to him to do that, “Courir un magasin” (to run a store), etc., are very frequently found.

After a thorough technical study of the dialect, Carrière concludes:

> *The Creoles of* La Vieille Mine *and the region have been without any French schooling ever since their ancestors left Sainte Geneviève at the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth. They have not heard a sermon in French since about 1895. Public and parochial schools, good roads, the automobile, the radio, and the talking pictures have all contributed in recent years to bring the younger people into contact with English* and to impress upon them that their local French dialect is a foreign language with no practical value whatsoever *the moment they leave their immediate surroundings...The next generation...will undoubtedly see the disappearance of Missouri French from the common use which has maintained it until today.*[55]

New Hopes for the Future

Since the Acadian Bicentennial of 1955 mentioned earlier in this report, the “Creole State” has witnessed a growing revival of interest in the French culture. The state authorities are just beginning to realize the necessity of salvaging whatever is left today of the great heritage that the French settlers have left in Louisiana. The following are the most important testimonials of this change of attitude:

A New Law

The first step toward repealing the antiquated law forbidding formal instruction in public schools through any medium other than English has been the passing of an act which provides for teaching French in public elementary and high schools in Louisiana. Thus, Senate Bill No. 20 (1968) of the Louisiana State Legislature reads in part as follows: “The French language and the culture and history of French populations in Louisiana and elsewhere in the Americas shall be taught for a sequence of years in the public elementary and high school systems of the state” in accordance with various provisions. The starting date is to be no later than the 1972-73 school year; “all public elementary schools shall offer at least five years of French instruction starting with oral French in the first grade;...all public high schools shall offer a program of at least three years of instruction in the French language and at least one course included in [sic] the culture and history of the French populations of Louisiana and other French speaking areas in the Americas;” but any parish or city school board may request to be excluded from these requirements “and such request shall not be denied.” The Bill was signed by Governor John H. McKeithen on December 27, 1968.

The Quebec-Louisiana Agreement on Cultural Cooperation

In 1967, the Louisiana legislature passed Senate Current Resolution 64, which endorsed closer relationship with Canada and its provinces, and provided the legal and inspirational basis for further measures. As a consequence, a wide variety of state agencies and institutions have expressed interest in closer relationships with Candian counterparts. This interest crystallized into the Quebec-Louisiana Agreement for Cultural Cooperation which, at the beginning of 1968, was being submitted by Senator Russell Long, Representative Edwin Willis, and Representative Edwin Edwards for Congressional consent, after its negotiation had been authorized by Governor John J. McKeithen who was willing to sign it.

Toward French-English Bilingual Schooling in Louisiana

On January 20, 1968, the first French-Acadian Conference was held at *La Maison Acadienne Française*, Lafayette, Louisiana. It was sponsored by the Louisiana State Department of Education in conjunction with the University of Southwestern Louisiana and the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. Its theme was bilingualism as related to intercultural understanding and its expressed purpose "to present to the interested elementary teachers, principals, and supervisors the objectives, immediate and far-reaching, of bilingual programs (the establisted ones in Texas, and the proposed ones in Louisiana)." On the 15th of December, 1967, a petition was addressed to the State Superintendent and the Special Legislative Committee, proposing a partial revival of the use of French as a language of instruction in Louisiana, particularly Acadiana.

NOTES

[1] Unless otherwise specified, basic fugures in this report are taken from the official 1960 Census or derived from them. The main source is *Mother Tongue of the Foreign-Born: Selected Characteristics of Foreign-Born by Language Spoken Before Coming to U.S.* (Final Report PC(2)1E).

[2] In Mason Wade's *Canadian Dualism*, pp. 396-397.

[3] Leon E. Truesdell, *The Canadian Born in the United States*, Table 32, p. 83.

[4] These estimates are based on data given in the *Sixteenth Census, 1940: Population, Nativity and Parentage of the White Population, Mother Tongue, by Nativity, Parentage, Country of Origin and Age, for States and Large Cities*, Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1943, and taken from Thériault. Unfortunately the corresponding data for 1960 are not available, as the 1960 official census did not include natives of foreign, mixed, or native parentage having a N-EMT in the mother-tongue data it presents.

[5] Lemaire studied this community in detail in "Les Franco-Américains de Fall River," *Conférences de l'Institut Franco-Américain de Bowdoin College*, pp. 39-48. His findings are the results of interviews with parish-priests, school directors, officials of F-A societies, etc.

[6] Thériault studied this community for his [unpublished] Harvard dissertation in 1951: "The Franco-Americans in Nashua, New Hampshire: An Experiment in Survival."

[7] In a personal letter dated January 20, 1969, Mr. Daniel G. O'Connor, Deputy Commissioner of Education of Vermont, informs the author that 89.5 percent of N-EMT speakers of this state are reported to be speaking French, whereas the remaining 10.5 percent speak 21 languages in all. Mr. O'Connor is completing a study of the urgent need for bilingual education in Vermont.

[8] This is the name given to the big exodus of French Canadians to the United States at the end of the nineteenth century. The lack of scientific agricultural information, the subsequent improvishment of the soil, the lack of roads and of markets, the lack of education, the work shortage in rural districts, caused the number of F-A immigrants to soar from 150,000 in 1854 to 250,000 in 1876 and 400,000 in 1890. For further information concerning the history of the F-A's see Robert Rumily's comprehensive *L'Histoire des Franco-Américains.*

[9] P. 244.

[10] For this section I am chiefly indebted to Hervé B. Lemaire, F-A teacher in Wilson Junior High School (Natick, Massachusetts) for his comprehensive study entitled "Franco-American Efforts on Behalf of the French Language in New England" written for the USOE Language Resources Project in 1964, and published in Joshua A. Fishman's *Language Loyalty in the United States*, pp. 253-279.

[11] Translation: "He who loses his language loses his faith."

[12] The *Clubs Richelieu*, totaling about 350 members, are organized along the same lines as service clubs throughout the United States and appeal especially to professionals and businessmen. They are popular in spite of the fact that only French may be spoken at the bimonthly meetings. Ten such clubs have been founded in New England since 1955.

[13] There were 13 of them in the whole country at the same date, with a circulation of 118,000.

[14] As of 1960, the total number of French stations in the U.S.A. was about 80 broadcasting nearly 240 hours every week. Approximately 17 of these were in Louisiana, where French was heard on the radio 120 hours per week.

[15] These figures, listed as of 1960, are nevertheless steadily diminishing. The very latest official statistics (November, 1968) reveal that there are presently 163 schools considered as F-A in New England (as compared to 277 in 1958), that they are found in 11 dioceses with 1,540 nuns or brothers as teachers and 410 lay teachers, and that the total enrollment is 62,128. This is probably according to a new definition of such schools, as the F-A character of many of them is progressively lost: not only do they follow state law pertaining to the curriculum and are more closely supervised by diocesan school directors, but foreign elements are regularly introduced in them. The sudden growth of the Catholic population in certain areas has forced many F-A schools to open their doors to large numbers of non-French children who otherwise would have been denied a Catholic education.

[16] Lemaire, "Les Franco-Américains de Fall River," op. cit., p. 44.

[17] This brief description is based primarily upon Professor Ernest R. D'Amours's "Le Collège de l'Assomption de Worcester: son origine et son évolution."

[18] L'Union, December, 1954. (A French monthly published in Woonsocket, Rhode Island). "Le Collège est une maison d'enseignement strictement classique et de mentalité française, qui toutefois ne pourrait longtemps faire abstraction du courant d'évolution auquel furent soumis les Franco-Américains et qui d'ailleurs s'empare de tous les groupes ethniques dans les Etats Unis." (April 15, 1955).

[19] Assumption Prep is the high school that prospective Assumption College students usually attend.

[20] Carrière, in William N. Locke's *Pronunciation of the French Spoken at Brunswick, Maine*, p. 10.

[21] "Quelques considérations sur le français parlé aux Etats-Unis d'Amérique," p. 21. The translation is: "I has been struck with amazement when I noticed a curious phonetic state among the French-Canadians of the United States. It so happened that the French articulation of words, the French accent, the very rhythm of the sentence were 'anglicized': it was a curious impression to hear the French words, the French forms in such a disguise....In a short note published in the Chlumsky *Mélanges*, I had called this state of things 'hantise phonétique.' This enigmatic formula means that a bilingual subject, while expressing himself in one of his languages, is *haunted* by the other language, so that when he thinks he articulates one of them he does in fact articulate the other one."

[22] Thériault, op. cit., pp. 409-410. Emphasis mine.

[23] Translation. "Languages are historical formations."

[24] "Comment doit-on enseigner le français aux jeunes Franco-Américains? ", p. 31.

[25] United States Congress, *Bilingual Education Programs*, pp. 13-14.

[26] Emphasis mine.

[27] United States Congress, *Bilingual Education Programs*, pp. 11-13. We are reproducing here part of this poignant statement illustrating the present situation in Maine:

"It is estimated that 21% of all elementary and secondary pupils in Maine are of French Canadian descent, of these about 75% understand French. This results in approximately 15% of the students in the Maine school system having some familiarity with French....

The first group [of two main ones] is in the St. John Valley on the border of Canada [where] 95 to 98% of the pupils are of French descent, speak French at home, and learn English as a second language only when they enter school Their culture is oriented toward the culture of Quebec and the French-speaking section of the province of New Brunswick....The superintendent of schools in Van Buren, a small town in the St. John Valley, Mr. Gérard Tardif, reports that the Reading Achievement scores of pupils who speak only French at home are on the average of three years below the national norms. Only 2% of these Van

Buren pupils go to college where most of them have undistinguished academic careers....

In 1966, Stanford General Achievement Tests were given to the pupils of Frenchville and St. Agatha. Nearly 80% of the youngsters entering these high schools spoke only English. Their test scores reveal an average of more than 2 years below the national average. Students in grades 4 through 8 demonstrate even greater difficulty with English....

All communities in this area report that their pupils have difficulty in understanding their reading assignments. Many students have to translate them into French before they can begin to comprehend what they have read. Furthermore, the lack of an extensive English vocabulary creates a problem at all levels of instruction, particularly in lecture classes in college.

Of the students in this area who go to college, many attend Fort Kent College, a small college in Northern Maine. Its Director of Admissions, Nathaniel Crowley, reports that the French-speaking students' verbal scores in their College Board examinations are 20 points less than are their mathematics score or what their intelligence scores would indicate. Twenty-five percent of French-speaking applicants are refused admission even though high school guidance counselors in the area, knowing the requirements of the college, screen out those students they know will be unable to qualify for admission to Fort Kent. Of the French-speaking students admitted, about 10% leave because of academic difficulties....

The other group of French American pupils are located for the most part in the industrial communities in Southern and Central Maine. Biddeford, Lewiston, Waterville, Auburn, Augusta and Westbrook....In Biddeford, from 5 to 10% of pupils entering the kindergarten speak no English while another 25% have marked accents when they speak English. In the lower grades, in both public and private schools, there are many failures in reading because of inadequate English vocabularies. Reading problems due to language difficulties are one of the causes of high school drop-outs at Biddeford, where 85% of the students are of French descent. Biddeford Superintendent, Bruce Smith, reports that 25% of the seniors go on to college and do well.

Both Lewiston and Waterville have a majority of French-speaking pupils, but in both cities less French is being spoken in the homes. Superintendent Buford Grants of Waterville reports that from 10 to 15% of pupils entering the kindergarten are unable to speak English. This is a marked decrease from 10 years ago.

Lewiston, in marked contrast to past years, has this year only one kindergarten pupil who did not speak English. Educators in Lewiston and Waterville report the problem of the French-speaking student is becoming less acute each year as more and more families use English at home rather than French. They deplore, however, that French is being eliminated. This emphasizes what to me is the major concern in this area; not that the students cannot speak English, but that the ability to speak French is being lost. Instead of the ability of speaking French being steadily abandoned, efforts should be made to maintain and improve fluency in French."

[28] United States Congress, *Bilingual Education*, p. 502.

[29] Bruce Gaarder ("Conserving Our Linguistic Resources," p. 19) refers to one Louisiana community in which everybody could speak French except the French teacher!

[30] Gaarder, Bruce, *et al*, "The Challenge of Bilingualism," p. 85.

[31] Lemaire, "Les Franco-Américains de Fall-River," op. cit., p. 44.

[32] Brault, "The Special NDEA Institute at Bowdoin College for French Teachers of Canadian Descent," p. 1.

[33] Lemaire, op. cit., pp. 275-276.

[34] See Gaarder, *et al*, "The Challenge of Bilingualism," pp. 61-63.

[35] Ibid., p. 61

[36] *Politics and Ethnocentrism: The Case of the Franco-Americans,* 1961, p. 16.

[37] Thériault, op. cit., p. 411.

[38] Lemaire, op. cit., p. 278.

[39] Other estimates vary from 300,000 to 700,000. Unfortunately, there has been no recent systematic official survey or census to determine the exact number of French speakers in Louisiana. According to the 1930 Census, the latest one providing some information on the subject, there are more than 565,000 persons (44 percent of the state's white population) of Acadian or French origin in the 26 French-speaking parishes (counties) of Southern Louisiana, many of whom still speak French today. In a thorough and fairly authoritative population study, *The People of Louisiana*, published in 1952, Smith and Hitt estimate that by 1940 the figure had probably gone up to 660,000, "for the proportion of persons of French descent in the state probably increased slightly during the 1930's" (p. 49).

[40] Walter M. Kollmorgen and Robert W. Harrison, "French-Speaking Farmers of Southern Louisiana," p. 154.

[41] In 1803, the French colonial territory in west central North America was purchased by the United States government from Napoleon's Franch for 15 million dollars. This is traditionally referred to as the "Louisiana Purchase."

[42] P. 24. This book was translated from the French, edited by Seymour Feiler, and published by the University of Oklahoma Press in Norman, Oklahoma, in 1962.

[43] It is the Acadians themselves who have corrupted *Acadien* into the familiar or derisive *Cadien*, pronounced *Kajn.*

[44] Marius Barbeau, "Louisiana French," p. 5.

[45] Jay K. Ditchy, ed., *Les Acadiens Louisianais et leur parler*, pp. 11-12. The English translation is as follows:

"Louisiana-French is in two forms: *creole*, which, in spite of certain changes, does not differ essentially from general and literary French, as far as pronunciation, syntax, or vocabulary are concerned...and *acadien* or *cadien*...which presents many peculiarities from every point of view. *Creole* is French transported directly from France and salvaged from contamination by great care of speaking it correctly, by the excellent schools and academies where the purest French was taught by distinguished professors, by uninterrupted interaction with great cities, and by the fact that many youngsters were sent to France to receive their education.

Acadien, on the contrary, has come from Canada, where it had already been somewhat modified, and which lacked continuous contact with France.

Even though many English words have been incrusted in the French-Acadian language throughout the 19th century, its essentially French character has not been seriously altered [the influence of other dialects, whether they be Indian, German, or Spanish, has been negligible]. This is because we are in the presence of a people determined to preserve its language in spite of difficulties and surrounding hostile influence."

[46] The Southern Baptists spend hundreds of thousands of dollars to work for the conversion of the French-Catholics of Louisiana, which they call "the greatest missionary field" for the Baptist Church. For this, they have at least one French radio program every day geared to affect the mentality of the humble French people who prefer something in their own language as "il parle du Bon Dieu." The aggressive Baptist radio campaign in French has awakened large numbers of Catholics to the need for French language radio broadcasts. (Joseph LeSage Tisch, *French in Louisiana: A Study of the Historical Development of the French Language in Louisiana,* p. 57).

[47] "Acculturation Among the Louisiana French," presented at the meeting of the Southern Sociological Society, Chattanooga, Tennessee, April 1, 1938. (See bibliography for published reference).

[48] Under the direction of Mr. Jacques Bezou (in 1959); publishes *Comptes Rendus*, a literary annual.

[49] "Louisiana French Try to Keep Language Alive," *The Evening Star*, Washington, D.C., Monday, April 28, 1969.

[50] Joseph LeSage Tisch, op. cit., p. 55.

[51] Poirer, *Le parler franco-acadien et ses origines*, p. 78. The English translation is as follows: "The syntax of Acadien and Canadian speech is essentially the French syntax. Consequently, our language is that of France. The words, the structures, the expressions that are heard in the mouth of our farmers, and which are taken for *patois*, have been brought from France, have been taken for old language, are archaic terms, often excellent. We have conserved them all religiously; they are part of our heritage. So much the worse for official French if it hasn't assembled them in its Dictionary. The language has been impoverished accordingly."

[52] Op. cit., p. 7. Emphasis mine.

[53] The basis of this section is Joseph M. Carrière, "Creole Dialect of Missouri."

[54] See the study of the latter by Ward Allison Dorrance, "The Survival of French in the Old District of Sainte-Geneviève." This study proposes to record the strange French speech of this district, where approximately 90 percent of the people speak French as their domestic tongue. They remain French peasants, probably in greater number than at the time of the Louisiana Purchase. From Saint Louis to Cape Girardeau, and for a great distance inland from the Mississippi, there is scarcely a community in which some of them may not be met. This is most remarkable if one remembers that there has been no contact, among these humble people, with Canada, Louisiana, or France for nearly a century and a half.

Their dialect is a composite of several dialects of northwestern France reduced first to a "Canadian French," transplanted afterwards to Missouri (then in the "Illinois country") where, during long years of isolation, it took on characteristics, often very fortunately, quite unique.

After analyzing the historical and social background of those people, the author provides an extensive glossary followed by characteristic folklore and songs.

[55] Carrière, op. cit., p. 119. Emphasis mine.

APPENDIX P

THE NORWEGIAN LANGUAGE IN AMERICA

Joan Frost
Research Assistant, USOE Bilingual Design Task

- History of Norwegian Immigration
- Institutions and Their Effect on the Preservation of the Norwegian Language
    - Lutheran Church
    - Schools, public and private
    - *Bygdelags*
- Location and Number of Speakers
    - Census and other data
    - Dispersion
- Language Maintenance: Signs of Life
    - State of the Norwegian language community today
        - Attitude toward language preservation
        - Retention rate
        - Cultural assimilation
    - Organizations
    - High school programs
    - College and university programs
- Advantages and Disadvantages of Establishing a Bilingual Program for Norwegian
    - Advantages
    - Disadvantages
- Reasons for Establishing a Bilingual Program for Norwegian

HISTORY OF NORWEGIAN IMMIGRATION

Although other countries contributed more immigrants to the U.S. melting pot, emigration from Norway at its peak came sooner than that from other countries and was greater in its proportion to the total non-emigrating Norwegian population than that from any other European country except Ireland. In the 1880's, 186,000 Norwegians came—11 emigrants per 1000 population in Norway. Some non-emigrating Norwegians viewed this as a national catastrophe. Between 1836 and 1915, three quarters of a million people left Norway in search of a better life in the U.S. For farmers this meant finding more fertile land. Also, landless peasants were eager to be free of the remains of the class structure in Norway which ascribed to them an inferior social status. Freedom of religion in America attracted many others. "America fever" spread quickly in Norway, circulating stories of cheap or free land, successful Norwegian-American settlements, freedom, and even gold.

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, only a few individuals had arrived in the New World, and most of these were sailors. Immigrants of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries tended to make the journey in groups, since travel in Norway, on the Atlantic, and in the American interior was difficult. Members of each traveling group generally came from the same district (or valley) in Norway. When they reached their new home, these groups frequently stayed together bound by their dialect, Lutheranism, regional traditions, etc.

Large-scale emigration began sooner from Norway than from the other Scandinavian countries. In 1825 the Norwegian *Mayflower*—the *Restaurationen*—arrived. Mass migration. caused by "America fever," started in 1836. The first colony was located in Kendall County, New York, but immigrants soon discovered better land to the west. In the 1830's and 1840's colonies were established in Illinois and Wisconsin. The 1850's saw settlements founded in Iowa and Minnesota. In the 1860's the Dakotas were settled. By 1879 Norwegians attracted by city wages had begun to settle in urban colonies, primarily Chicago and Minneapolis. By the late 1890's immigrants were settling the only frontier left, the western states of Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington. An irregular pattern of settlement connected the established midwestern colonies with the new ones in the West. Urban communities were established in Brooklyn and Seattle, and urban dwellers tended to be younger than those who settled in rural areas, unmarried, and eager to return to the homeland after they had saved some money.

INSTITUTIONS AND THEIR EFFECT ON THE PRESERVATION OF THE NORWEGIAN LANGUAGE

The Lutheran Church

To be Norwegian was to belong to the Lutheran Church. Having a permanent and cohesive congregation, being the social center, and operating colleges, hospitals, orphanages, old people's homes, etc., the Church had great power to promote the continued use of Norwegian in America.

In the earliest days of mass migration, the language question was simple. Norwegian was to be used exlucsively for services and religious instruction because neither the clergy nor the recent immigrants could speak English very well; Norwegian was "the language of the heart" of the congregations; and in large, isolated Norwegian communities there was little need for English.

As time moved on, the language problem came into focus. Although there has long been dissent in the Church regarding the choice of language, the following summary presents a chronological consensus of thought during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Early in its history, the Norwegian-American Lutheran Church insisted on the use of Norwegian for two reasons: to preserve the true faith and to conserve the cultural heritage. Churches provided instruction in the reading and writing of Norwegian so that children could participate in the services. The Church also established colleges for the purposes of training clergy; frequently English was taught there, but graduates were expected to speak Norwegian in their services. Church leaders advocated the establishment of parochial schools and criticized the non-religious American public schools.

Later, "leaders of the Norwegian churches recognized the necessity of an eventual transition to English, but they did not want it to be over-hastened and they wanted to be sure that religious and cultural losses were not suffered in the process."[1] The dilemma was that English was necessary to prosper and be a good citizen and to attract the second and later generations to the Lutheran Church, while Norwegian was necessary to preserve the purity of Lutheranism. Family heads insisted on Norwegian; their children favored the elimination of Norwegian and of other foreign practices from the Church.

The change to English was not accomplished without opposition from both the Church and individuals. A counterattack against the use of English was launched in the period 1890-1915. The organization of urban secular societies on a national scale took place—Sons of Norway, *bygdelags*, singers' association, etc. These were less effective than the church because they did not include the whole family and because they were less permanent. In fact, their cause was almost hopeless since Norwegian, which had been the chief asset for union among immigrants, had become a divisive liability.

The major transition in both language and culture was made between 1900 and 1925. At the beginning of the 1900's, the Church was using both languages. About 1916 a resolution to "hold fast to the Norwegian language where it will not hinder the growth and progress of the kingdom of God" was adopted. In 1917 some seminaries were bilingual. President L. Larsen of Luther College, Decorah, Iowa, had recommended bilingual education.

Two events of 1917 produced a catastrophic effect on the Norwegian language in the U.S. First, the entrance of the U.S. into World War I resulted in patriotic hysteria. The second was the merger of the three major synods of Norwegian Lutheranism into the Norwegian Lutheran Church in America. The union of synods brought dreams of the union of all Lutherans, who had been separated before by the national characteristics of Lutheranism. The use of Norwegian and the presence of other traces of Norwegian national origin would be an obstacle to union with Swedish, Danish, German, and other Lutherans. In 1928 the language of official church documents was changed from Norwegian to English. But the proposal to drop the word "Norwegian" from the church name was not approved until 1944. The gradual decline in the use of Norwegian in the Church continued at least through 1948 when about three percent of church services were conducted in Norwegian. By 1948 the Augsburg Publishing House (the church publishing agent) issued only a calendar and Christmas annual in Norwegian; two official church papers, *Lutheraneren* and *Lutheran Church Herald*, were issued, the former, which has since ceased publication, with a circulation of approximately 7,000 compared to 81,00 for the latter.

Resistance to the transition to English was stronger in some areas than in others. Three counties in Wisconsin (Vernon, Trempeleau, and Waupaca) reported a greater-than-average church use of Norwegian. Farming areas in North Dakota and northern Minnesota retained Norwegian notably more than South Dakota and southern Minnesota.

The truly bilingual period ended at the turn of the century, and in spite of a last rally at the end of World War I and the Norse-American centennial in 1925, the transition to English was almost complete by 1930. To survive, the Norwegian language needed a stream of immigrants and support from the Church and the foreign language press. None materialized.[2]

Schools, Public and Private

Public schools made the second generation of Norwegian Americans bilingual. In spite of the efforts of the clergy to establish parochial schools, the people were not aloof to American public schools. Haugen states: "Norwegian immigrants were simply not willing to make the financial sacrifices necessary to build a religious school system parallel to the American secular school."[3] A compromise was reached whereby many congregations supported a supplemental church school which met from one to three months in the summer or at other times when the public school was not in session. The curriculum included catechism and Bible studies. "The medium of instruction was Norwegian, so that some time had to be devoted to teaching the children to read the language....This made the school in effect a language as well as a religious school."[4]

Haugen credits the church school with supplying the only source of instruction in reading and writing the official Dano-Norwegian norm and consequently keeping alive the ability to read Norwegian. Schools did not offer instruction in oral Norwegian.

Meanwhile, English was firmly entrenched as the language of the second generation while they were in the classroom of the public schools. Older persons learned English through their economic, official, and social relations with others, but some remained Norwegian monolinguals. At first, most learned no more than necessary, although knowing English was a distinct advantage in getting a good job.

Bygdelags

An unofficial institution which may have helped extend the usefulness of the Norwegian language in the United States was the *bygdelag*. This society of Norwegian Americans included persons who had all come from one district in the homeland and their descendants in this country. Most were organized in the United States between 1907 and 1925. *Bygdelags* are a reminder of the regionalism of the homeland, important to Norwegians, whether they live in the United States or in Norway. More than any other American-Norwegian group, the *bygdelags* preserved the oral (and to a lesser extent the written) use of dialects, preserved the use of the older Dano-Norwegian orthography, and discouraged the use of the standardized New-Norwegian orthography, in which none of the American editors, writers, and readers had been trained.

Members, usually of the first and second generations, were intensely proud of their foreign heritage. However, by the 1950's English was beginning to be used at the meetings. As the first and second generations die out in this country, the *bygdelags* will probably fade as well.

LOCATION AND NUMBER OF SPEAKERS

Census and Other Data

The 1960 census shows that there are 140,774 foreign-born living in this country who claim Norwegian as their mother tongue. After partially allocating the figure for nonresponse, there are 152,687. Fishman estimates that the three generations total 321,774; Gage lists 364,000 Norwegian speakers for 1960; and finally Muller estimates 700,000 for 1964. Haugen estimates 2,500,000 persons in the three generations of Norwegians in the U.S.[5] The 1960 census reports Norway as the country of origin of the foreign stock (first and second generations) for 774,754 respondents.

This last source shows that most members of the Norwegian foreign stock live in the North Central and Pacific West regions. By state, the distribution in rounded figures is as follows: Minnesota, 155,000; California, 76,000; Washington, 74,000; Wisconsin, 73,000; New York, 62,000; North Dakota, 53,000; Illinois, 49,000; Iowa, 28,000; South Dakota, 26,000.

Dispersion

One of the problems encountered in studying Scandinavian Americans is their dispersion across the northern Midwest and Far West of the United States. As a general rule, they tend to live in towns of 2,500 or less population and on farms; they are not as likely as members of other nationality groups to live in the big cities. If Einar Haugen is correct in his statement that "immigration which is dispersed in the cities or in marginal rural areas is more quickly anglicized than that which maintains its solid neighborhood core,"[6] then the Scandinavians, who live in compact settlements in small towns, have a distinct advantage in the preservation of their native languages.

LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE: SIGNS OF LIFE

> *Most speakers of Norwegian in the Middle West belong to the farming class. Nearly all are bilingual, and many of them handle the English language better than the Norwegian. It is often easy to detect their Scandinavian background in listening to their English, even in the case of second- or third-generation Americans. They were usually educated in a grade school and a Norwegian-Lutheran parochial school. The parochial school, until relatively recent times, was conducted in Norwegian and children were taught to read and write the language. As a result, only the youngest speakers of Norwegian are without any knowledge of its literary form. Literary Dano-Norwegian is still used in church services and is the familiar form of the language to those of the city population who cultivate the idiom of their ancestors in the Sons of Norway lodges; but the country communities use dialects almost exclusively. As a rule, a community has only one main dialect. The pioneers preferred to settle with people from their own district in Norway; if people from two districts settled close together, the dialect that counted the larger number of speakers usually replaced the other. Dialect mixture is seldom to be found except where a mixed dialect seems to be the language of a community. Only the largest settlements, for instance the Koshkonong settlement near Madison, have maintained several dialects with equal prestige.*[7]

THE STATE OF THE NORWEGIAN LANGUAGE COMMUNITY TODAY

Attitude Toward Language Preservation

From the little information available on attitudes, it seems that those who have some knowledge of Norwegian are disappointed that the language is fading out in the United States. Nevertheless, little has been done recently to turn the tide of extinction. Those who know nothing of Norwegian seem relieved that the language problem is to be resolved shortly with the exclusive use of English. Very few societies devoted to Norwegian matters, such as Sons of Norway, use Norwegian at meetings now. It falls to a determined individual to remind members of their "duty."

The profusion of Norwegian dialects contributed to the weakening of the language in America. First, if speakers of different dialects find it difficult to communicate in Norwegian, they will look for a common ground, for instance, English. Second, most Norwegian language publications, both in the United States and in Norway, refuse to print articles in dialect, and most Norwegians had instruction in reading and writing the standard orthography, not their dialects. Consequently, many rural Norwegians have to maintain two separate dialects, the local one for most oral communication and the standard language for reading, writing, and oral communication for church services, official functions, etc. "Those who can still speak Norwegian speak a more or less modified country dialect; those who can write it write the official Dano-Norwegian of the nineteenth century. There is a spoken language and an institutional language, and this linguistic dualism is one of the outstanding facts about Norwegians in America."[8] Third, "Fear of ridicule arising either from dialect difference, or from an assumed 'vulgarity' of the Norwegian dialect, has been a significant factor in turning many a conversation to English."[9]

Immigrants often found their Norwegian vocabulary inadequate to deal with new social, agricultural, and governmental situations in the United States. Two solutions were found: the mixing of Norwegian and English, and the substitution of English for Norwegian, preferred by the bilinugal second generation.

Retention Rates

Lowry Nelson has calculated a retention rate for foreign languages in the United States. "The percentage of the various language groups which fall in the third generation or later may be considered as a partial measure of the persistence of that language in our culture."[10] His persistence rates (the percentage of the third generation which speaks the mother tongue) for the Scandinavian languages are as follows: Norwegian, 12.3 percent; Swedish, 4.1 percent; Finnish, 6.5 percent; Danish, 4.0 percent. The national average for all foreign languages is very near 4.0 percent.

Nelson offers no explanation why the Norwegian language has a retention rate approximately three times greater than that of the other Scandinavian languages. One idea suggested by other writers is that Norwegains left their homeland during a period of increasing nationalism, which has persisted in the United States. Another idea attributes their retention of "Norwegianism" to their numerous organizations and to such social societies as the *bygdelags*, which emphasized friendships with people of the same regional background in the homeland.

Einar Haugen rejects Nelson's persistence rates on the ground that they are unimportant and that Nelson has made some errors in his judgments. Haugen's persistence rates are based on the proportion of foreign language speakers in the second generation, data taken from the 1940 census. The ratio of American-born foreign speakers to the total number of second-generation immigrants is called the "index of retention."

Comparing Norway with other Scandinavian countries, the index of retention shows 5:4:3 for Norway, Sweden, and Denmark respectively. To account for the greater retentiveness of the Norwegians–who are less numerous in the United States than the Swedes–Haugen states that the Norwegians came in large numbers before the Swedes and "settled compactly in rural settlements to a much greater extent than the Swedes. The Swedes were more highly urbanized before immigration than the Norwegians; the Danish were more urbanized (and urbane) than either of the others."[11]

Cultural Assimilation

There has been a decline in the importance of special organizations of the Norwegian groups and of special ceremonies and institutions (such as the observance of May 17, the Norwegian Independence Day). To be accepted as part of the larger American group, Norwegians have apparently decided to de-emphasize explicit symbolic expressions of loyalty to Norway. One should not infer that this de-emphasis is proof of rejection of Norwegian ethnic heritage.

> *Despite a thorough adjustment and assimilation to the American society, with an extensive participation of the Norwegians in the functions of their communities, we have found the Norwegian nationality group to be a well organized social unit in each of the localities under consideration, and one which is not only the object of loyalty on the part of its members, but also exercises considerable influence on various aspects of their social life. It may seem peculiar, therefore, that we never find this group, so important in the lives of its members, engaged, as a whole, in any kind of activity or function. Apart from it identification with the Lutheran Church, it never appears in action as an all-inclusive unit.*[12]

Organizations

Among the numerous organizations in existence today concerned with the preservation of the Norwegian heritage as well as the language, the following could probably best serve as initial contacts.

1. The American-Scandinavian Foundation, 126 East 73rd Street, New York City, New York 10021. Publishes *American-Scandinavian Review*, Erik J. Friis, editor.

2. Sons of Norway. This orgnaization flourishes with new headquarters at 1455 West Lake Street, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55408. The language of its monthly publication (*Sons of Norway*) was changed to English in 1942; efforts to change the name of the organization were defeated.

3. Society for the Advancement of Scandinavian Studies. Professor Thomas Buckman, Secretary, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

4. Norwegian-American Historical Association, Northfield, Minnesota. Secretary, Professor Lloyd Hustvedt. Editor, Professor Kenneth Bjork.

High School Programs

The peak period for the teaching of Scandinavian languages in high schools was 1900-1917. By the latter year 63 schools had an enrollment of 4,526 students. Programs were almost wiped out during World War I as a result of isolationism and declining immirgation. The downward trend continued until in 1927 there were only 22 schools (with an enrollment of 1,080) offering a Scandinavian language. An upward trend in the 1930's saved the language programs from extinction. Interest again became dormant during World War II but reawakened after the war. Today high school and college enrollments are declining slowly, while university enrollment in Scandinavian studies is sharply increasing.

In 1967 courses in Norwegian or Swedish were offered in ten high schools,[13] of which the following offered Norwegian:

1. High School Division, Bethany Lutheran College, Mankato, Minnesota–Norwegian 1
   Professor Rudolph E. Honsey, teacher
2. North High School, Minneapolis–Norwegian 1, 2, and 3
   Lars G. Kindem, teacher
3. Roosevelt High School, Minneapolis–Norwegian 1, 2, and 3
   Mrs. Anne Elfstrum, teacher
4. Ballard High School, Seattle–Norwegian 1
   Solfrid Aslanian, teacher

In 1966 there were 135 high school students enrolled in Norwegian, 260 in Swedish, and none in Danish, Finnish, or Icelandic.

The two major problems in the teaching of Norwegian are the lack of good instructional materials and the lack of qualified teachers. For example, Bay Ridge High School in Brooklyn had one of the largest Norwegian programs in the country until 1963 when the teacher took another job and no replacement could be found.

Professor Lloyd Hustvedt, St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minnesota, arranged and coordinated a Norwegian Teachers' Conference at St. Olaf College in 1965. Professor Kenneth G. Chapman of UCLA was delegated to investigate the possibility of procuring government funds for the purpose of writing instructional materials for elementary and secondary schools. Funds were secured for one year and materials prepared under Chapman's direction. These are being used in mimeographed form. Applications for funding of further work have been rejected by government agencies.

College and University Programs

Courses in Scandinavian languages were introduced over 100 years ago in denominational schools of the Midwest primarily to produce theological candidates. The number of colleges offering courses grew rapidly during the height of the immigration period (for Scandinavians, this period was the last half of the 1800's), and by 1917, 85 had been founded. Most of these have since either closed or merged. Scandinavian language courses were found in even fewer universities in that period, the Universities of Wisconsin and Minnesota having the notable programs. The present trend shows a reversal of past history. It is the universities which are now expanding their course offerings in Scandinavian studies, while the colleges (once so important) are decreasing theirs.

Enrollment in Scandinavian language, literature, and area studies courses in universities, colleges, and high schools reached its peak in Autumn, 1967, when 1,172 students were studying Norwegian, compared to 1,208 for Swedish and 130 for Danish. This was the largest enrollment in the past twenty years, and perhaps in the last thirty.

Current Programs[14]

Colleges and universities having Norwegian (and other Scandinavian) programs are listed in a survey by Hedin Bronner and Gösta Franzén published in *Scandinavian Studies* for November, 1967 (39:345-367). This is the seventh in a series of such surveys published every third or fourth year since 1947. Programs in Norwegian usually include from one to three years of language, advanced courses in literature, and courses in English which offer literature in translation, history, and social studies of Norway and the other Scandinavian countries.

At the colleges the largest program is that offered at St. Olaf College (Chairman, Dr. Lloyd Hustvedt), where the archives and the editorial offices of the Norwegian American Historical Association are housed. Luther College (Decorah, Iowa) also has an active program under the direction of Dr. Knut T. Gundersen, strengthened by the presence of the Norwegian American Museum, which has recently been incorporated as a separate organization. Other colleges offering Norwegian courses are Augsburg College (Minneapolis, Minnesota), Augustana College (Sioux Falls, South Dakota), and Bethany Lutheran College (Mankato, Minnesota).

The oldest continuous program (going back to 1869) at any American university is at the University of Wisconsin (Chairman, Professor Harald S. Naess). Other major universities having separate Scandinavian departments offering Norwegian are University of California, Berkeley (Chairman, Dr. Eric O. Johannesson), University of Minnesota, Minneapolis (Chairman, Dr. Alrik Gustafson), and the University of Washington, Seattle (Chairman, Dr. Walter Johnson; Norwegian taught by Dr. Sverre Arestad). Programs in Scandinavian which include Norwegian are offered by University of California, Los Angeles (Chairman, Dr. Erik Wahlgren; Norwegian taught by Dr. Kenneth G. Chapman), University of Chicago (Dr. Gösta Franzén, Chairman), Harvard University (Dr. Einar Haugen), University of North Carolina (Dr. George S. Lane), University of Oregon (Dr. Astrid Mork Williams), University of Pennesylvania (Dr. Otto Springer), University of Texas (Dr. Lee Hollander).

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF ESTABLISHING A BILINGUAL PROGRAM FOR NORWEGIAN

Advantages

1. **Historical knowledge.** "It is safe to say that more is known today about the history of the Norwegian group than any other immigrant nationality in the United States."[15] Information on Norwegian cultural background is available.
2. **Freedom from poverty.** As a group, the Norwegian Americans belong to the middle class; few are living in poverty. Their farms are usually described as being well maintained; in urban areas, they live in "good" neighborhoods. Ineligible for support under the Bilingual Education Act, with its present re-

striction to low-income families, Norwegian Americans can afford to finance their own programs.

3. **Established programs in secondary and higher education.** As mentioned before, there are a number of high-school, college, and university programs in Norwegian. A person bilingual in Norwegian and English could readily find a college where he could further develop his language skills.
4. **Active organizations.** Finally, there is also a variety of active organizations, foundations, and societies, which could be useful in summoning support for a bilingual program.

Disadvantages[16]

1. **Orthography.** Reforms in Norwegian spelling occurred in 1907, 1917, and again in 1938. Emigrated Norwegians have been reluctant to accept these changes, as is reflected in their publications. Until quite recently most of these have used the older Danish orthography (which was eliminated in Norway in 1907). The few publications that still survive have now accepted the new orthography, though only in a so-called "moderate" form without the attempts seen in some Norwegian publications to introduce dialect forms into the standard.
2. **Problem of Dialects.** Virtually all teaching of Norwegian in the United States has been of the originally Dano-Norwegian standard, incorporating successively the reforms mentioned above. There is also in Norway another standard, the New Norwegian, which is closer in many respects to the dialects spoken by most emigrants; but this has been rejected, since it was not widely taught prior to emigration. The fact that both standards have been getting closer to each other has resulted in a confusing number of spellings, which have been instrumental in making some emigrants discouraged with their native language.
3. **Barrier between Norwegian and American Norwegian.** Language mixing has influenced all immigrant languages, and there is clearly a barrier between the American Norwegian and the non-emigrated Norwegian. "American Norwegian is indeed Norwegian, though we may wish to designate it as a bilingual dialect of that language."[17]

   When Norwegian Americans learned to speak English, a "quick and disastrous" effect on the Norwegian spoken among immigrants was apparent. Many anecdotes have been repeated about the newly emigrated Norwegian arriving in the United States and discovering that he could speak neither English nor American-Norwegian.
4. **Lack of educational materials and personnel.** Textbooks suitable for the first year of college and university work have been available for some time, through the efforts of teachers of Norwegian in these institutions. In recent years the chief worker in this field has been Einar Haugen, who has produced textbooks for reading and conversation (in the so-called Army Series) as well as a Norwegian-English dictionary. As noted above, efforts have been made to produce materials also for elementary and high school use, but these have so far been

hampered by lack of funds. An advanced reader is being planned by a group of teachers in Norway, Great Britain, and the United States. Even so there is great need for a variety of modern books and edited texts comparable to those of the major foreign languages.

5. **Dispersion of speakers.** Although the concentration of speakers of Norwegian in scattered small towns and farm areas may have helped to preserve the Norwegian language until now, it would seem disadvantageous to have potential pupils dispersed over relatively large geographical areas.
6. **Lack of famous contemporary authors.** Norwegian literature had its classic period in the nineteenth and first half of the twentieth centuries, when authors like Henrik Ibsen, Bjõrnstjerne Bjõrnson, Knut Hamsun, Johan Bojer, and Sigrid Undset were widely read in this country. Today there is an abundance of writers, many of them outstanding, but they have not been able to win a great international following and do not form as compelling a reason for learning the language as their predecessors.

REASONS FOR ESTABLISHING A BILINGUAL PROGRAM FOR NORWEGIAN

Given all the negative aspects listed above, the best reason for establishing a bilingual program for Norwegian is *urgency*. Haugen quotes a resident of Spring Grove, Minnesota: "I think it will only be this generation that keeps it up. Twenty-five years from now I think there will be awfully little left." This prediction was made twenty-seven years ago (1942).[18]

Norwegian totters precariously, much like the whooping crane and the American eagle. If help is to be of service, it must come soon.

NOTES

[1] Nelson and Fevold, *The Lutheran Church Among Norwegian-Americans*, p. 299.

[2] For more recent information on Norwegian and German language maintenance in Lutheran parishes, see John E. Hofman's "The Language Transition in Some Lutheran Denominations" (53 pp., 12-item bibliography), Chapter 10 in Joshua A. Fishman's three-volume dittoed book *Language Loyalty in the United States.*

[3] Haugen, *The Norwegian Language in America*, Vol. I, p. 100.

[4] Ibid., p. 101

[5] Ibid., p. 30.

[6] Haugen, "The Struggle Over Norwegian," p. 6.

[7] Oftedal, "The Vowel System of a Norwegian Dialect in Wisconsin," p. 261.

[8] Haugen, "Language and Immigration," p. 10.

[9] Ibid., p. 22.

[10] Nelson, "Speaking of Tongues." p. 204.

[11] Haugen, *The Norwegian Language in America*, op. cit., p. 289.

[12] Munch, "Segregation and Assimilation of Norwegian Settlements in Wisconsin," p. 137.

[13] Bronner and Franzén, "Scandinavian studies in Institutions of Learning in the United States, Seventh Report: 1966-67," pp. 360-361.

[14] The following three paragraphs have been kindly contributed by Professor Einar Haugen of Harvard University.

[15] Haugen, *The Norwegian Language in America*, op. cit., p. 36.

[16] We have gratefully used Professor Haugen's contributed materials for the following paragraphs.

[17] Haugen, *The Norwegian Language in America*, op. cit., p. 71.

[18] Ibid., p. 274.

APPENDIX Q

DESIRABILITY OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN THE JAPANESE AMERICAN COMMUNITY

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Along with Hawaii, Southern California has a great concentration of the Japanese American population. At a conservative estimate, there are roughly 100,000 Japanese-Americans spread throughout Southern California, of whom at least 80,000 reside in the Los Angeles metropolitan area. There is also a constant inflow of new Japanese immigrants. Although they belong to all social and economic levels, they are predominantly in the lower middle class. The first generation "Issei" continue to speak Japanese; and family codes, ethics, and cultural heritage are preserved in an isolated subculture. The second generation "Nisei" have serious bilingual and bicultural problems to cope with. Because of the discrimination and social hardships of previous years, many of the Issei parents return to Japan or send their children back to Japan to be raised and educated. These children, if they return to the United States, are called "Kibei." The Kibei have very close language and cultural ties to Japan, and their children also encounter bilingual problems.

Because of their scattered distribution, Japanese American students do not make up a significant portion of any school district. In each entering class of elementary school, there are usually four or five children who start their education without adequate command in English. One teacher in East Los Angeles, where there are about ten elementary schools, estimates that there are approximately 100 such children in his area. A high school teacher in the Los Angeles School District states that he knows at least 200 students who are still having language difficulties at the high school level. This is a significant number; but, because of the relatively small number found in each school, a special program to meet their needs has not yet been created. A large language program has been organized to aid the Spanish-speaking community in the Los Angeles area, but no such attention has been given to the Japanese American children. The administration, not understanding the problems of these children, combines them with the larger Spanish-speaking group. If the Japanese American children find themselves in a bilingual program at all, it will often be a Spanish-English one. This creates further social and psychological problems. In the present situation, the child is denied his right to receive a good education, and his hard working parents continue in vain to seek guidance and assistance.

A child from a Japanese-speaking home usually starts his first-grade education as a tiny minority in the class. He does not understand English well enough to follow the activities of the others, nor does he know how to ask for help. Often he is the only one in the class who looks physically different and who cannot communicate in English. He is immediately labeled as inferior, is pushed into a corner, and is neglected. The child develops a shy, insecure personality. Unless he is exceptionally bright, he will not have a chance to overcome this initial handicap. Although young children pick up language quickly and will learn enough to get along in school within a year or two, many have lost their initial opportunity for a fair competitive chance. Even if a child is gifted, he may not be able to show his potential, as all tests are biased toward an American norm associated with English-speaking persons of European heritage.

Concerned parents of Japanese American children are advised by the school to abandon everything Japanese at home in order to attain the goal of becoming American. Sometimes Japanese does cease to be spoken at home and eventually the family gives up everything Japanese. In spite of this effort, the child soon discovers that his parents are incapable of fulfilling their role in helping the child with his school problems. The parents have even greater language problems than he does. They cannot help him with homework assignments, nor, in many cases, can they comply with directives from school to allow them to take part in activities and organizations set up by the school. The child lacks the background and the help that are readily available in some English-speaking homes and that are taken for granted by many of his teachers. During his entire academic carreer the child must solve his problems by himself or not at all. Some of the sociological problems, such as minority problems, juvenile problems, and the generation gap, that are increasing in the Japanese-American community, may stem largely from the bilingual problem.

The most urgent need of bilingual education in the Japanese American community is apparent in the following three areas: (1) In early childhood children from Japanese-speaking homes must receive adequate attention to their needs if they are to be assured of a better start in elementary education. They should be encouraged to express themselves in whichever language is most natural to them and to learn how to seek help from the teachers. Gradually the child should be assisted in narrowing the gap he feels between him and his English-speaking peers. His English should be strengthened to the point where it can become the main language of academic discipline. (2) The bilingual and bicultural problems of teenage students must also be solved. There are large numbers of young students suffering from a minority complex that stems from the bilingual problem. They must be assisted in solving the emotional and academic problems arising from their ethnic background. The value of the Japanese language and culture that has been lost in their minds must be restored. They must find their identity and self-respect as Japanese Americans. (3) Parents should be given assistance in meeting their language and cultural needs in connection with their children's education. They need an explanation and interpretation of the American school system—its regulations and basic educational philosophy—so that they may be able to play their role as parents in a satisfactory manner.

Because of the thin and widespread distribution of the Japanese-speaking community, the problem is more difficult to handle than that of the Mexican Americans. There exist in various communities afternoon and Saturday language schools to teach Japanese to children who have not kept up the language at home. There are also groups of concerned college students who have organized classes to help younger children with language difficulties, homework, and other school problems. If these various interest groups could be coordinated and could receive the full cooperation of the schools, an effective program might be developed to aid handicapped students.

The best possible way to coordinate these various activities might be to organize a bilingual research center for the specific study of Japanese American problems. Such a center might initiate programs to help meet the immediate needs in the three major areas mentioned above. It should study how best to provide a preschool bilingual education. It should devise ways of counseling and in other ways aiding students and of assisting Japanese parents with problems concerning their children's education. Such a center might also provide professional guidance to local afternoon and Saturday schools in their efforts to develop satisfactory programs to retain the language and the cultural heritage of Japan.

APPENDIX R

THE LANGUAGE THE CHINESE SPEAK IN AMERICA

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Cantonese is one of the five major dialectal variations within the Chinese language family, with an estimated 40 million[1] speakers out of a nation of 700 million people. The national speech of China is Mandarin. There are over 500 million Mandarin speakers who can understand each other in spite of their noticeable regional accents, and they all generally accept the accent of the area around Peking as the standard. But a Cantonese speaker, if he has never heard Mandarin before, cannot understand his compatriot from Peking. When these two have to communicate (with one another) for the first time, they either have to employ an interpreter or resort to a pencil and a pad.

A Chinese, regardless of his dialectal speech, can always communicate with all his fellow countrymen by writing because the Chinese written language, in both the traditional classical style and the modern vernacular style, is nationally uniform. The traditional classical style of the written language, having evolved from ancient writings preserved since the eighth century B.C., retains many extremely archaic elements which set it far apart from the current daily speech, and all literate Chinese have throughout history learned to read and write in this style. The written vernacular style had its beginning about the sixth century A.D., but the modern vernacular writing, which is aimed at recording modern Mandarin speech, became popular in the 1920's, and it remains nationally uniform. Local dialects can be written down and have been used in some local literature, but this kind of written literature remains extremely limited in quantity and has a very restricted range of circulation and span of existence. For example, a dialectologist three years ago tried to locate a sample of written work composed in the Fuchow dialect, one of the major dialects; it took him more than six months and an effort covering three continents before he succeeded.

Most of the Chinese in America speak Cantonese but not necessarily the speech of Canton, Kwangtung Province, China. At least ten subvariations of the Cantonese speech can be heard from Grant Avenue, San Francisco, to Mott Street, New York. Those most frequently heard are Si-yap (including Toishan) and Lung-dou. Up to now children who have grown up in those Chinese families located in or close to concentrated Chinese communities in America have retained their parental dialects. Many of these children attend Chinese language schools after regular public school hours. At the Chinese language school the pupils continue to speak Cantonese, listen to Cantonese-speaking teachers who teach them how to read and write *Mandarin*, a dialect so different as to be almost another language. They pronounce the written Mandarin words in the Cantonese fashion, which does not disturb them because for hundreds of years the tradition has been to accept the vast discrepancy between written and spoken language in China. These children also study some other subjects, such as Chinese history, in the same manner. Very few of them continue to attend the afterschool Chinese classes beyond the sixth grade because of the pressure and activity of their regular school curriculum, and only those few who persist for at least a few more years succeed in mastering the written Chinese language.

It has been the experience of the Chinese immigrants in this country that their opportunity to continue to use Cantonese has depended on their choice of a profession and a place to live. Those remaining in close contact with Chinese enclaves in America have been able to maintain their Cantonese speech and, to a lesser extent, their ability to read written Chinese. Assuming they have learned to read the written Chinese very well, they may continue to enjoy reading the Chinatown newspapers, which are composed in a kind of modified classical Chinese known as the newspaper style, plus an occasional feature story on the back page written in the Cantonese *dialect*. Unless the person is trained to be a specialist in linguistics and is conducting research in Chinese dialectology, he pays very little attention to the rare occurrence of a feature story in Cantonese in Chinatown publications. Others, able to read Chinese fluently, may throughout their lives keep reading publications from mainland China, which are almost exclusively in twentieth century vernacular Chinese, and publications from Taiwan, which are likely to include more classical or semi-classical styled items than the mainland press. Still others later learn to speak Mandarin because of travel or employment. A socio-linguistic phenomenon has occurred in recent years in American Chinese settlements: there is an increasing number of Chinatown residents capable of comprehending Mandarin. The informal Mandarin classes organized by Chinese community service centers may have helped but not to any significant extent. The interest and incentive seem to have been created more by the influx of Mandarin-speaking immigrants and visitors.[2]

So much for actual use of Cantonese or Mandarin, spoken or written, by the Chinese in this country. The question of how much of the cultural benefit they have received has been due to their mastery of the Cantonese speech and how much has been due to their familiarity with the written Mandarin literature cannot be answered with any accuracy. It would seem quite appropriate to suggest that, in educating Chinese American children bilingually, family dialect, the preference of the parent and the pupil, and the number of such pupils involved in the community should all be taken into consideration. The decision about spoken Chinese can be: either to use both Mandarin and Cantonese throughout the program or to use Cantonese during the first to sixth grades and make both available afterwards. As to the written language, there seems to be little need to promote Cantonese, a script never extensively used in the past and not likely to be in great demand in the future.

NOTES

[1] *Central South China* (New Haven: Human Relations Area Files, 1958), p. 86. Somewhat different figures are used in Chou Fa-kao, *A Study of the Chinese Language* (Taipei, 1966), p. 26.

[2] In some Chinese population concentrations in Southeast Asia, Mandarin also seems to be rising in popularity. I have observed this in a place like Singapore, where the Chinese residents continue to use one or another South China costal dialect among themselves, but Mandarin has become a sort of prestige language.

APPENDIX S
INDIANS, ESKIMOS, AND ALEUTS

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General Introduction
Early Indian Education
Indian Education Since 1930
The Present School System
The Situation in Alaska
Educational Problems
The Language Difficulty
Efforts Toward Solutions: A Renewal of Interest

The American Indians and Alaskan natives are not immigrants to these United States; therefore their attitudes, the difficulties involved in a viable education for them, the history of past mistakes—these, and many other factors, are unique as compared to the other language groups in this country. As a recent report states:

> *Their resistance to assimilation into the larger American culture cannot be compared with that of others who have left the mainstream of their own cultures and freely chosen to live in a different one.* [1]

Their languages are more diverse than those of all of Europe (with 13 large language families) and, as could be expected, there is a correspondingly great diversity of culture patterns.

These people have suffered much at the hands of the "second Americans," from blatant discrimination to well meaning but paternalistic governmental policies. Fortuantely, both the government and the society at large are becoming more aware of the mistakes of the past and the possibilities for the future. The need today is even more crucial than before because most of these groups are not a "dying people." Rather the opposite is true. At the end of the fifteenth century it is estimated that there were 800,000 Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts; at the end of the nineteenth century there were only 240,000 but today there are an estimated 524,000 Indians and 29,000 Eskimos and Aleuts for a total of 553,000. And they are increasing steadily, with the birth rate about twice as high as that of the Anglo population.

Prior to 1870 throughout the first three centuries of Indian white contact, the major responsibility for education rested with religious groups. Probably the first school was set up by the white man in 1568, when the Jesuits established a school for the Florida Indians in Havana. The Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) was established in 1824, but up to 1849 the federal government assumed only limited responsibility. The year 1870 marked the beginning of the reservation period with varying degrees of federal paternalism. The emphasis then, as now in the majority of cases, was quick acculturation into national life. The educational system as it existed during that time is summed up in a 1967 Senate subcommittee report:

> *The national policy toward Indians during this period was one of suppression and isolation on reservations while efforts were exerted by religious groups to Christianize Indians and to teach them farming, homemaking and the three R's. Because the great majority of Indians did not accept education during this period, these efforts had little impact.* [2]

An interesting contrast to the failure to develop quality education on the part of the United States government were the Indian schools set up by these people themselves. The Cherokees set about to build their own system supported with tribal funds. "By 1852 the Cherokees had a flourishing school system of 21 schools, 2 academies, and an enrollment of 1,100. The

Choctaws were only a little behind the Cherokees, and these were soon followed by Creeks, Chickasaws, and Seminoles."[3]

Up to the 1930's the situation went from bad to terrible. The boarding school system was the worst in that it was set up along military lines with strict regimentation of dress, activities, and general behavior. The facilities were of very poor quality; the children were undernourished both physically and emotionally. An effort was made not only to break cultural ties in terms of language, history, vocational training, and the arts, but also to break family ties by strongly discouraging parental visitation (much less involvement in the programs).

Then, in 1928 a document was published which greatly influenced the history of Indian education. The Meriam report[4] was based on two years of research (1926-1928) into the social and economic conditions of the Indian population. Owing to its influence, "greater emphasis was placed on self-government for Indian tribes, on an improved system of education, and on participation of state and local agencies in Indian affairs."[5] The period up to the present will be discussed later in fuller detail, as it pertains more specifically to language programs and policies. Since 1930, state and local governments have assumed progressively greater control over Indian education. Today, the schools are undergoing a transition from the BIA to the public facilities. Greater numbers of Indian children are entering state schools. The policy of the BIA today is "to turn over school facilities to public school districts as rapidly as there is mutual readiness and capability."[6] Not only is there a physical transition taking place, but there is a growing agitation on the part of many interested gropus that the government develop some specific policies as to the role government should play in the future educational development of Indian children.

At present the Indian child can be enrolled in one of several different types of schools: (1) a regular public school, (2) one of the 77 boarding schools operated by the BIA, or (3) one of the 147 federal reservation day schools. There are also two federal hospital schools, 18 BIA dormitories, and several mission schools. In 1961 it was estimated that 60 percent were enrolled in public schools, 30 percent in federal schools, and 6 percent in the mission schools. Even though the transition is evident in the fact that in 1961 the BIA dropped nine states from its program, at present the BIA still has partial responsibility for approximately two-thirds of Indian children in public schools.[7] Of the 142,630 enrolled in the BIA schools the Aleuts, Eskimos, Navajos, Sioux, and Pueblo (including Hopi) are most numerous and comprise 77.5 percent of the total enrollment.

In Alaska, the situation is slightly different from that of the continental states. Alaskan natives, like the other Indian groups, are among the most rapidly growing populations of the world today. Thirty percent of the total Alaskan population are indigenous–Eskimos, Aleuts, and Athabaskan Indians. They are wards of the government, but there are no tribal reservations. These people are among the most isolated ethnic groups in the entire country; the majority live in small villages ranging in size from 50 to 1,500 persons. Lee Salisbury has succinctly put his finger on their unfortuante situation by saying that "Alaska is an ideal place to live–unless you happen to be an Eskimo, an Aleut, or an Indian."[8] At the time of statehood in 1958, educational responsibility had been assumed by the state for about half of the school age children of Eskimo, Aleut, and Indian origin. The BIA continues to serve Alaska native children in the more isolated areas, where school operation is difficult and costly. At present it operates 82 elementary day schools in the native villages. To attend high school, most children have to leave their villages; some attend the Bureau schools at Mt. Edgecumbe and Wrangell Institute in Alaska and at Chemawa in Oregon. Throughout Alaska the state operates more than 200 elementary schools: 119 rural or village, 17 in on-base locations, and 77 in other communities and cities.

There are many, many educational problems involving these minority groups. Their isolation and cultural differences combined with at least occasional contact with the white culture cause great social and psychological problems which hinder the acquisition of high quality education. These difficulties become translatable into high dropout rates, widespread confusion as to self-identity, poor performance on scholastic aptitude tests, etc. The lack of culturally relevant educational programs is one of the more probable perpetuators of these factors. Many of the groups have characteristics which hinder adaptability to the Anglo classroom: they tend to live in and for the present, they are generally non-competitive, there is a respect for individual autonomy, the child's experience in the home is largely non-verbal, and it is the custom to be seen but not heard around adults, to mention a few of the cultural differences, Thus, what educators may interpret as lack of interest in learning may be a result of the Indian, Eskimo, or Aleut's distaste for public competition. The teacher may feel that Indians are "slow learners," when it might be correctly interpreted as a culture clash, in that for some Indian communities the style of learning is based on observation rather then participation. In a study by L. M. Coombs the performance of Indian children on standardized tests of all kinds ranked consistently below national norms.[9] The reasons for this recurring poor performance, both in school and in testing situations, are complicated and not clearly understood by anyone, but a factor which is probably both a symptom and a cause is the language difficulty.

In Alaska there are fourteen main dialects of Eskimo, four different Indian languages, Aleut, and dialects used locally for each. The Ohannessian study mentioned above found one Indian school where fourteen languages were spoken. These specialists found that there were no accurate figures on the number of speakers of these various languages and that

> *...there are few accounts of the settings in which Indian languages are used and those in which English is used, whether Indian languages are becoming less frequently used, and whether there are generational differences in language use and language fluency.*[10]

We know that Indian languages are still very much alive in many areas of the United States. As recently as 1953 it was said that more than half the children enrolled in federal schools had a non-English mother tongue; that more than 30 percent of the Indian children in public schools were bilingual; and that, on the average, more than 15 percent of all Indian school children came from homes in which no English was spoken.[11]

> *Instruction of Indians in the vernacular is not only of no use to them but is detrimental to the cause of education and civilization....This language which is good enough for a white man or a black man ought to be good enough for the red man. It is also believed that teaching an Indian youth in his own barbarous dialect is a positive detriment to him.*[12]

The Commissioner of Indian Affairs in 1887 who made this statement would probably shudder at the concepts working in the Rough Rock Demonstration School in Arizona today, where teaching in Navajo is considered an aid to students, education, and civilization. The respect of the government for ethnic language and culture has had its ups and downs since the early days of the republic. In the 1930's, as mentioned earlier, there was a growth of interest in the plight of the Indian, particularly regarding the incorporation of culturally relevant materials and teaching methods primarily because of the advent of John Collier as Commissioner of Indian Affairs in the Roosevelt administration. Alphabets were constructed and readers were prepared in Sioux, Hopi, Tewa, and Navajo. Unfortunately, Congress was unwilling to provide funds for teaching in any except the English language and Indian parents manifested little enthusiasm for the programs. So the entire project folded up.[13]

Traveling from one region to another, one finds different language problems in the schools and distinct attitudes on the part of the community and educators as to the rate and methods of acculturation. Both active and passive acceptance or rejection of the English culture and language exist today, varying with cultural, sociological, and psychological factors. But in most cases, forced efforts at rapid and complete assimilation seem to produce the opposite of what they try to accomplish.

> *The efforts of the teachers to "unteach Indian patterns of language, dress, and behavior make the constantly reiterated point that the rest of the world looks down on the traditional Indian while the student's natural resentment of punishment for speaking Navajo...develops a core of resistance to any real internalization of the new behavior patterns.*[14]

Up to this point, there seems to be little if any evidence of widespread success in the field of Indian education, few language maintenance efforts, and a lack of materials relevant to these problems.

Today there are areas of greater and lesser need. The Bureau's greatest areas of concern are with some of the largest groups, that speak little or no English, such as the Navajo in the Southwest, the Alaskan natives, and the Mississippi Choctaw. There are also problems with groups that speak a non-standard English dialect, such as the Sioux, the Oklahoma Indians, and the Pueblo groups. In Alaska the situation seems more critical in terms of educational difficulties owing to isolation and dialect variation. Even though the Aleuts have, in most cases, changed to English, as have the Athabaskan Indians in the populated areas, language problems and the abandoment of traditional Eskimo culture in the classroom continue to be worrisome. As Vanstone has said, "Children from homes where very little English is spoken are still learning to read, rather than reading to learn."[15]

Fortunately, the American Indian groups are benefiting from the increasing amount of attention that has been directed toward language problems of minority groups. There is a better understanding of linguistic and cultural relativity. For example, the Carnegie Cross-Cultural Project of the University of Chicago is primarily concerned with increasing the educational level and literacy of some 10,000 Cherokee speakers inhabiting five counties in eastern Oklahoma by working within the cultural values of the tribe and using Cherokee as a viable learning instrument. In the Choctaw schools in Mississippi and to some extent in the Alaskan schools bilingual teacher aides are being used. In Adair County, Oklahoma, the South Central Regional Educational Laboratory program has been promoting Cherokee English bilingualism in the schools. The outstanding example of Indian education can be found in Rough Rock, Arizona, in the heart of the Navajo reservation. This three-year-old school, which has an enrollment of 400 elementary students, is the responsibility of the Navajo community. They advocate

> *...a "both-and" approach to Navajo education. The cornerstone of this approach is that Navajo children are as deserving of pride in and knowledge of their native culture as are children of American society in general.*[16]

Although there are many enclaves in the United States, such as the Cherokee in the North Carolina area, where at least 75 percent of the adult population speak an Indian, Eskimo, or Aleut language

> *...many American Indian languages are destined to disappear with the death of their current speakers, barring the unlikely development of major revitalization movements with linguistic emphases.*[17]

At present many interested groups are reacting to the great need of the Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts. Studies already conducted and research studies in the planning stage (especially by the Center for Applied Linguistics in cooperation with the BIA) show great promise for possible educational change. But change must be drastic and soon in order that these people gain a foothold in the future.

NOTES

[1] Ohannessian, *The Story of the Problems of Teaching English to American Indians: Report and Recommendations*, p. 11.

[2] United States Senate, "Quality Education for American Indians, A Report on Organizational Location," p. 2.

[3] Berry, "The Education of American Indians; A Survey of the Literature," p. 11 ff.

[4] Meriam, et al., *Problem of Indian Administration.*

[5] "Quality Education," op. cit., p. 2.

[6] *Report to the Senate Appropriations Committee on the Navajo Bordertown Dormitory Program by the Commissioner of Indian Education*, p. 39.

[7] For full details as to the statistics of school enrollment see U.S. Department of the Interior, *Fiscal Year 1968, Statistics Concerning Indian Education.*

[8] Salisbury, "Communication for Survival–The COPAN Program," p. 1.

[9] Coombs, *The Indian Child Goes to School: A Study of Interracial Differences.*

[10] Ohannessian, op. cit., p. 10.

[11] Beatty et al., *Education for Cultural Change*, p. 504.

[12] As cited in Spicer, *Cycles of Conquest.*

[13] Berry, op. cit., pp. 58-59.

[14] Downs, "The Cowboy and the Lady: Models as a Determinant of the Rate of Acculturation Among the Piñon Navajo."

[15] Vanstone, Point Hope, *An Eskimo Village in Transition.*

[16] Hoffman, *Oral English at Rough Rock: A New Program for Navajo Children.*

[17] Fishman, *Language Loyalty in the United States.*

APPENDIX T

BACKGROUND AND CURRENT STATUS OF BASQUE AMERICANS

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EUROPEAN BACKGROUND

The Basque people occupy a small geographical area in the Southwestern corner of Franch and a portion of north central Spain. The three French Basque provinces of Soule, Basse-Navarre, and Labourd have a total area of about 3,000 square kilometers and a population of 185,000 persons. Of this total only about 90,000 persons are culturally Basque in that they retain knowledge and use of the Basque language. The four Spanish Basque provinces of Navarra, Alava, Vizcaya, and Guipúzcoa are considerably larger both in size and population. The Spanish Basque provinces encompass about 17,000 square kilometers and have a total population of 1,800,000 (as of 1960), of whom approximately 600,000 are culturally Basque.

The Basques have long been regarded by scholars as the "mystery" people of Europe. The mystery stems from the fact that on linguistic and biological grounds the Basques are unique vis-a-vis neighboring European populations. That is, the Basque language is not related to the Indo-European language family, whose representative cultures dominate the continent. In fact, after literally centuries of effort by philologists and linguists, a conclusive relationship between Basque and any other language in the world remains to be demonstrated. The major source of evidence for the biological uniqueness of the Basque comes from serological studies. In terms of frequencies in the population of blood types, the Basque are found to have the lowest incidence of blood type B and the highest incidence of blood type O of any people in Europe. The Basques also have zero incidence of blood type AB. Finally, the Basques have the highest incidence of any group in the world of the RH negative blood factor.

The economy of the Basque country is based upon four major activities–industry, seafaring, tourism, and peasant agriculture.

1. *Industry*–The Spanish Basque provinces are one of the most extensively industrialized areas of the Iberian peninsula. Bilbao, in the province of Vizcaya, is a major urban industrial center, the home of an elaborate steel industry, an important banking center, and a major seaport.
2. *Seafaring*–The Basques have a centuries' long tradition of seafaring. They were the earliest whalers in Europe and played a major role in Spain's voyages of discovery. Today, the Basque seacoast is dotted with fishing villages from which modern fishing fleets set sail for the coasts of Africa and Newfoundland.

3. *Tourism*—Both the Spanish and French Basque coastlines have developed tourist centers. The best known is the town of Biarritz, with its legalized gambling.
4. *Peasant agriculture*—This is still the predominant feature of the Basque countryside. It is the peasant sector of the society which has contributed the majority of candidates for emigration to foreign areas. This is in part due to the mountainous terrain and adverse climate, factors which place very real limitations on the expansion of the agricultural base and, in part, on the structuring of the peasant family. The Basque peasant regards the farmstead as immutable, that is, it is deemed reprehensible on both moral and economic grounds to fragment or parcellize a farmstead either through land sales or divisive inheritance. Consequently, a single heir to the farm is named in each generation. The siblings of the heir are provided with dowries and are expected to leave. Historically, many of these disinherited persons have gone out to establish themselves in Latin America, Australia, and the American West.

MOVEMENT INTO THE AMERICAN WEST

Basque people entered the American West in ever increasing numbers throughout the second half of the nineteenth century. The earliest settlers established themselves as sheep herders. The peasant background of the early settlers gave them an orientation toward land and livestock in a period of Far Western history when the dominant concern was with mining booms. It might be argued that the Basque immigrants, coming from an essentially landstarved society, were deeply impressed with the almost unlimited availability of good land in the American Far West.

Many of the earliest settlers worked as herders for non-Basque livestock outfits, saving money and ultimately buying their own sheep. The range was entirely open at the time, so many became owners of what have been called "tramp bands." That is, the herder owned no home base; rather he lived in a tent, practicing transhumance[1] on public lands throughout the year. Once the outfit grew appreciably, the herder would send home for assistance, helping a brother, cousin, or nephew to make the trip over to join the outfit. Typically the newcomer worked with his relative for a few years, taking his wages in sheep until he had enough animals to form his own band. By the beginning of the present century there were sufficient numbers of Basque tramp bands (as well as a few established, ranch-based operations) throughout the West to make a "Basque presence" felt in Nevada, California, Oregon, Idaho, Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, and New Mexico. However, the largest concentrations were in central and southern California, northern Nevada, and southern Idaho. Up until this time, Basque immigration was made up almost entirely of single males. However, the Basques' reluctance to marry non-Basques prompted many individuals to go back to the Old Country to marry. A number of these early herders brought their wives back to the West, and established Basque boarding houses. By the 1920's there was scarcely a community in the sheepherding regions of the West without one or several Basque "hotels." The Basque hotel became an important social institution where the herders could find security in familiar surroundings, where they could find employment information (ranchers came to depend upon the hotel keepers for their herders), and where they could find assistance in dealing with the wider American society. The hotel keeper, then, came to serve as a type of cultural broker for the herders. His permanent residency in the town gave him the opportunity to learn at least elementary English and make the necessary contacts to allow him to help herders when the latter were in need of such assistance as medical care, legal and banking services, etc.

In the 1920's and 1930's two developments seriously affected the Basque populace in the West. First, the immigration laws were changed, imposing a quota system which was particularly prejudicial to Spanish nationals, and the flow of Spanish Basques into the West was seriously curtailed. The French quota remained much higher, consequently the movement of French Basques into the West continued at a steady pace. The second development was the closing of the range through the Taylor Grazing Act and similar legislation. Under the Act tramp sheep bands no longer qualified to use government grazing lands and rigid controls were placed upon the established ranchers' use of government land.

The impact of the legislation was particularly marked among the Basque ethnic group since the large majority of tramp bands were in Basque hands. Many persons were ruined financially and most were forced out of the livestock business. Some went back to Europe, others sought employment with larger outfits, while many were forced into other work. It was at this time that many Basques entered construction work, mining, or the timber industry. A large number of French Basque herders moved to the San Francisco Bay area, where many became established as gardeners.

By the late 1940's and early 1950's there was a crisis in the sheep industry, in that the old herders of the pre-quota days were retiring and the French Basques entering the West were few in number and prone to enter gardening or other professions. In light of political pressure by the sheep owners, Congress made special provisions to allow Spanish Basque herders to enter the country on a contract basis (i.e., with their services contracted to a specific rancher). In the early fifties the arrangement proved unsatisfactory from the owners' viewpoint since many herders would work for a few months and leave to work elsewhere. Consequently, the contract was stiffened to prescribe that a herder leaving sheepherding was subject to immediate deportation and stipulating that a herder could remain on U.S. soil for a maximum of three years (to prevent herders from spending five consecutive years in the U.S., thereby qualifying for permanent residency and citizenship). The three year contract remains in effect to the present and several hundred Spanish Basque herders are working in the West under its provisions.

The impact of the contract herder upon the maintenance of the Basque cultural heritage in the West is complicated. On the one hand, the presence of young men from the Old Country provided second and third generation Basque Americans (the descendants of the early settlers) with at least sporadic contacts with Old World Basque culture. It is the young herders who provide the contestants in the athletic events at Basque picnics (see below) and it is the presence of Basque herders in the hotels that gives an Old World flavor to the hotels themselves (see section on hotels below.) Conversely, the contract herder is by his profession isolated from other persons through much of the year. Also his contract guarantees him year around employment as contrasted to the old system where winter lay offs filled the Basque hotels. Finally, the fact that the herders were required to leave at the end of three years made their impact transitory in nature and ruled out an infusion of "new blood" into the local Basque community. A recent (since 1967) revision of the contract, however, promises to change the nature of the influence of the contract herders. Herders may apply for permanent residency and leave sheepherding once they have fulfilled their three year obligation. This means that for the first time in forty years there is likely to be a steady infusion of Old World Spanish Basques into the American West–a state of affairs which can only serve to strengthen Basque American culture in the West.

After somewhat more than a century of Basque immirgation into the American Far West we can presently distinguish a Basque American ethnic group and a Basque American culture. There are serious problems involved in estimating the size of the Basque American community. Conservative estimates suggest that there are approximately 40,000-50,000 persons who identify themselves as being of Basque descent. Less conservative estimates range up to 100,000 as a figure for the Basque American populace. Whatever the figure, the major concentrations are in the Far West. In rural communities like Gardnerville, Winnemucca, Elko, and Ely in Nevada, Shoshone and Mountain Home in Idaho, Lodi and Los Baños in California, and Ontario and Jourdan Valley in eastern Oregon, the Basque people constitute one of the most conspciuous ethnic minorities in the area. Far Western urban areas with significant concentrations of Basque people are Boise (Idaho), Reno (Nevada), and San Francisco and Los Angeles (California). We should also mention that there is a Basque colony in New York City and another in the Miami area. The former is made up largely of ex sailors while the latter stems from the fact that there are several jai-alai courts in the Miami area. Jai-alai is a Basque sport and the professional players are brought over from the Basque country.

The fact that we can refer to a Basque American community suggests that there are characteristics among Basque Americans that set them off from the wider populace. These characteristics might be labeled as ethnic group boundary maintenance mechanisms. There are at least twelve such mechanisms operative among the Basque American community:

1. *Preferential endogamy.* There is a degree of reluctance to marry non-Basques. This is true even of second and third generation Basque Americans. It is common for second and third generation girls to marry sheepherders from the Old Country. As a corollary, when Basque Americans marry non-Basques, the children are invariable raised to identify with the Basque cultural heritage. There are many examples of persons with a single Basque grandparent regarding themselves as "Basque."

2. *Retention of the Basque language.* Most Basque immigrants arrive in the American West bilingual in Basque and either French or Spanish. After a few years residence in the West they have a halting knowledge of English, use Basque most frequently among themselves, and are well on the way to losing their proficiency in Spanish or French. In the next generation the most frequent pattern is English-Basque bilingualism. The Basques' retention of their language is both a source of pride and a major facet of their ethnic identity. It provides them with an extremely effective shield against non-Basque influence.
3. *Catholicism.* The overwhelming majority of Basques are Roman Catholic. However, their Catholicism also retains a distinctive Basque flavor, based, in part, upon the folk aspects of religion in the Old Country. That Basque Catholicism differs in some aspects from the religion of other Roman Catholics is seen in the fact that the Basque Americans support several chaplains from the Old World. A French Basque priest, Father Challet, residing in Fresno (California) travels almost constantly throughout the states of California, Nevada, Colorado, and Wyoming visiting Basque communities, saying mass, preaching, and hearing confessions in the Basque language. There are several Basque priests in the Idaho area (a notable example is Father Recalde of Parma) who play a similar role.
4. *Occupational specialization and career trajectories.* The original economic niche in sheep raising carved out by the early settlers continues to characterize the Basque community to this day. Basques play a prominent role in all aspects (from herding to ownership) of the sheep industry of the American West. Some of the largest outfits are owned by Basque interests and the large majority of herders in all outfits are Basques. Although there has been a degree of occupational mobility among Basque Americans (several prominent doctors, lawyers, businessmen, and politicians of the American West are of Basque decent) there is a strong identification with the sheep-herding and raising role. Even urban Basque professional people retain this identity as reflected in their joking patterns, attendance at rural festivals, etc.
5. *Basque social clubs.* Wherever there are concentrations of Basque people, there is a Basque social club. The communities with such clubs include, in California: San Francisco, Los Baños, Fresno, Bakersfield, Chino, and La Puente; in Nevada: Reno, Elko, and Ely; in Oregon: Ontario; in Colorado: Grand Junction; in Idaho: Boise and Mountain Home. There is also a social club in New York City. Club membership is generally restricted to persons of Basque descent and their spouses. The clubs usually sponsor at least one or two dances annually on traditional Basque holidays. The Boise Basque club has its own building.
6. *Folk dance groups and annual fiestas.* Folk dance groups are often formed under the auspices of the Basque social clubs. The communities with dance groups are Boise, San Francisco, Reno, and Ely. The dancers perform at Basque affairs and, in the case of the Oinkari dancers from Boise, go on tour to major

cities in the U.S. However, the main purpose of the groups is less a question of performing in public and more the idea of teaching children the traditional dances. Thus there are dance groups which never perform outside the circle of the local Basque community. In all areas with a Basque social club, but in other areas as well, such as Burns (Oregon) and Buffalo (Wyoming), there is an annual fiesta or picnic. These events often attract several thousand people, many of whom travel hundreds of miles to attend. It is at these picnics that a great deal of news is exchanged and Basques in one area learn of what is going on in another. The highlights of the picnics are the performances of one or more dance groups and traditional Basque athletic events such as weight lifting and wood chopping. The contestants are drawn largely from the pool of Old World herders, and herders excelling in a particular sport become famous and travel the festival circuit throughout the West competing for prizes. Basque cultural symbols such as the beret, folk costumes, Basque music, Basque cuisine, and wine drinking from goatskin bags, are much in evidence in their picnics and serve to express and solidify the ethnic identification of the Basque American community.

7. *The Basque hotel.* Mentioned above, the Basque hotel serves the Basque American and the recent immigrant herder with a common meeting ground in which the former is able to gain firsthand experience with Old World Basques and the latter are exposed to a degree of contact with "American" culture in a "safe" or ethnic context. Interaction in the setting of the Basque hotel tends to solidify the ties between the herders and the Basque Americans. The Basque hotel may be regarded as the single most important social institution of the Basque American ethnic group.
8. *The network of Basque hotels.* This may be regarded as a line of communications along which information flows between the Basque communities in the American West. Basques travelling throughout the West invariably stay over in the local hotel where they serve as carriers of news from other areas. Thus it is possible to obtain in the Basque hotel detailed information about persons, events, or working conditions in communities a thousand miles away. Another important communicational aspect of the hotels is that they are sources of information on events in the Old Country. The information is received both by subscribing to Old World periodicals and publications and by word of mouth from the recent immigrants.
9. *Legal favoritism.* The immigration laws are an effective contributant to boundary maintenance among Basque Americans. The herders' provisions in the U.S. Immigration Laws have permitted a higher rate of influx of Old World culture bearers into the Basque American community than among many other ethnic groups. This infusion of new blood serves as a lifeline with the Old Country and is instrumental in reinforcing ethnic awareness among Basque Americans.
10. *Ethnic identities.* The Basque people had a long tradition, prior to coming to the U.S., of maintaining ethnic identity in the face of overwhelming odds. Old

World Basque culture as a European ethnic enclave is itself an anachronism in the modern world of super states. The fact that we can still identify an Old World Basque cultural tradition is a living monument to the tenaciousness of the Basques and their strong loyalty to their traditions in the face of overwhelming odds. Therefore we can say that Basque people regard their heritage as a worthwhile symbolic estate, an attitude which translates into a keen sense of ethnic pride. At a minimum, this gives the Basques an inward looking quality which strikes non-Basques as extreme aloofness vis-a-vis other people. In its less pleasant aspects it translates into a notion of racial superiority. What this means for Basque Americans is that the Basque people are old hands at maintaining ethnic group solidarity in a context of cultural pluralism.

11. *Contact with relatives.* Basque Americans retain active contact with relatives in the Old World through the mails and by sending messages with returning herders. Basque Americans frequently intercede as sponsors to assist relatives to come to the Far West. Furthermore, there is an extremely high incidence among Basque Americans of paying visits to the Old Country.
12. *Home decorations.* A final point is the frequent use among Basque Americans of Basque symbols in home decorations. Most homes of Basque Americans are filled with pictures, bric-a-brac, phonograph records, etc., representative of the Basque cultural tradition.

EDUCATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE BASQUE CULTURAL TRADITION

The question of the educational aspect of the Basque cultural tradition may be divided into a concern with Basque studies (a body of scholarship focusing upon the language, history, and culture of the Basque people) and the pedagogical aspect (i.e., the ways in which formal education and related activities contribute to the maintenance of Basque traditions).

In terms of Basque studies we find that there is, indeed, a clearly defined and productive field of scholarship (beginning at least as early as the sixteenth century). The magnitude of the field may be appreciated in the fact that a bibliography of Basque studies is currently in press which runs to eight volumes, with an approximate total of 300,000 titles of books and articles dealing with Basque culture.

In addition we find that in the Basque country itself there are at least five journals of Basque studies and several scholars and academic organizations working exclusively in this field of investigation. Similarly, there are several publishing houses devoted exclusively to Basque publications.

A number of European universities have an interest in the field—notably the University of Bordeaux, the University of Paris, and the University of Salamanca.

In Latin America there are centers of Basque scholarship—with their respective journals and publications—in Mexico City, Caracas, and Buenos Aires.

In the United States the University of Nevada has initiated a Basque Studies Program with the purpose of researching the historical movement of the Basques into the American West and their subsequent acculturation. Other goals of the Program are to establish at the University of Nevada a comprehensive library of Basque materials and provide courses within the University curriculum on the Basque language and culture. This year (1968-1969) the Basque language course is scheduled for the spring semester and the Old World Basque culture course is being offered in the community of Elko through the General Extension Service of the University. The Basque Studies Program is currently organizing a Summer School in Basque Studies to be held in 1970 in the French Basque country.

The University of Idaho has also projected a Basque Studies Program although to date it has restricted its efforts to library acquisitions. There is also a project at the City College of New York (under the direction of Professor Morton Levine) which is called the North American Institute of Basque Studies.

In terms of the pedagogical dimension or educational aspects of the Basque cultural heritage we find that in the Old World there is a major struggle in progress between the Basques and the central powers of Spain and France. The Basques agitate for their own school system in which the language would play a major role, but the Spanish and French governments view this proposal with suspicion. Consequently, at present and for the last several centuries, the Basque language has been outlawed in the school system. At times repression has been even more virulent, in that a person could be jailed for merely using the language in public. Despite such measures the Basques on both sides of the frontier work to circumvent the efforts of the respective governments by establishing private schools and publishing pedagogical aids such as grammars, history books, and literary works. Yet the fact remains that the formal governmental stance is sufficiently effective to cripple the full development of a Basque intelligentsia and reading public. The number of Basque speakers who are also literate in the language remains low.

In this country very few efforts have been made at a pedagogical level to strengthen the Basque cultural heritage. One exception is a program initiated at the Boise Basque Center, where the language was taught for a number of years to interested individuals. Presently, however, the only pedagogical activities are those sponsored by the Basque Studies Program of the University of Nevada. In addition to course offerings, personnel on the program lecture widely throughout the West to Basque social clubs and other interested groups.

RECOMMENDATIONS

From the foregoing it may be appreciated that Basque Americans constitute one of the more tightly knit immigrant ethnic groups in the United States. They retain a fierce sense of pride in, and loyalty to, their Basque cultural heritage and do all they can to preserve it by founding social clubs and dance groups, sponsoring events such as annual fiestas, and retaining ties with the Old World by bringing over Basque chaplains and sponsoring cultural events (the Olaeta Basque Ballet of Bilbao, Spain, recently toured the Far West), and, finally, by making trips to the Old Country.

The question of how best to aid the Basques in their attempts to retain their heritage should, in my estimation, be directed at teaching materials and auto-teaching methods assistance rather than actual curriculum development. In the first place, there are not sufficient concentrations of Basques in any single area to make them a dominant ethnic element in the school population. On these grounds alone it is senseless to attempt to develop elementary or secondary school curricula aimed at Basque Americans. Secondly, the Basque people would not support such an approach even if it were feasible. At an educational level they are fully identified with the American school system. Basque American children are fully conversant with English by the time they reach school age and consequently, to my knowledge, they do not have any outstanding problems in school that might be traced to cultural causes.

Rather, I believe that Basque Americans would prove most responsive to a program of assistance articulated on the one hand through the social clubs and on the other through academic programs such as the Basque Studies Programs at the University of Nevada and Idaho. A primary area of assistance should be development of a good English Basque grammar and dictionary and language tapes or records which could serve as the basis for formal courses in the various clubs as well as for individuals on a self-teaching basis. A second line of assistance is to help the various Basque communities sponsor cultural events which would include bringing over performers from the Basque country and inviting guest lecturers to speak on various facets of Basque culture. A third aid would be to provide scholarships or financial assistance to outstanding students to enable them to spend a year or more studying in the Basque country. Similar assistance of shorter duration might be extended to organizers and members of Basque American folk dance groups to enable them to broaden their knowledge and repertoire. Fourthly, the local libraries in communities with a significant Basque population should be encouraged and assisted to acquire books dealing with Basque culture. Fifthly, scholarships might be established to assist university students interested in pursuing some facet of Basque-Studies-related research. Finally, a publications outlet should be provided for the results of original research on the Basques and for English translations of classics in Basque history, linguistics studies, folklore studies, and literature.

It is my belief that the above program would best meet the needs and receive the widest acceptance among Basque Americans.

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[1] Editors' note: transhumance is the seasonal migration of livestock, and the people who tend them, between lowlands and adjacent mountains.

APPENDIX U

OTHER MINORITY GROUPS IN THE UNITED STATES

- The Role of Yiddish and Hebrew in American Jewish Education (by Maurice Mizrahi)
    - Yiddish in the United States
        - Demographic Data
        - Survival of Yiddish
        - Yiddish Secular Schools
    - Hebrew in the United States
        - Present Status and Prospects
        - Study of Hebrew
    - Conclusion
- Greek Speakers (by Joan Frost)
    - Immigration
    - Settlements
    - Religion
    - Schools
    - Conclusion
- Hungarian Americans (by Joan Frost)
- Ukrainian Schools and Organizations (by Joan Frost)
- Lithuanian Education (by Joan Frost)

Yiddish in the United States

Demographic Data. Yiddish is spoken natively by approximately four million persons in the world, half of whom live in the United States. Important concentrations of Yiddish speakers can be found in Isreal (800,000), the U.S.S.R. (500,000), Mexico (200,000), and Argentina (200,000). Other sizeable groups live in Rumania, France, Canada, and Poland, all in the 50,000-150,000 range, which together make up approximately a tenth of the total number.

Since 1914 three circumstances have caused the Yiddish language in the United States to dwindle. First, legislation sharply curtailed immigration from eastern Europe. Second, immigrants and their children became increasingly acculturated into American life. Finally, eastern European Jewry perished under Hitler.

Nevertheless, when the 1960 census was taken, somewhat over half a million foreign born Americans claimed Yiddish as their mother tongue. The 1940 census enumerated as many as 1,751,000 native speakers, all generations included. In spite of sharp losses, Yiddish maintains its sixth place in total number of speakers of non-English languages in this country and fifth place among the number of foreign born non-English speakers.

The geographical areas of concentration of the 503,605 American foreign born speakers of Yiddish are given in the 1960 census, *Mother Tongue of the Foreign Born*, as follows:

Rank	State	Number of foreign-born native speakers of Yiddish
1	New York	275,308
2	Pennsylvania	32,559
3	California	32,159
4	New Jersey	27,238
5	Massachusetts	26,417
6	Illinois	25,979

The distribution among major metropolitan areas is the following:

Rank	Metropolitan Area	Number of foreign-born native speakers of Yiddish
1	New York City	265,747
2	Los Angeles-Long Beach	28,149
3	Philadelphia	26,040
4	Chicago	25,421
5	Boston	21,503
6	Miami	13,634
7	Detroit	10,787
8	Newark	10,382

According to the foregoing tables, it is apparent that the clustering occurs in the Northeast, where 74.1 percent of the Yiddish speakers are concentrated. New York City, the cultural and spiritual center of Yiddish life in this country, is the home of more than half the Yiddish-speaking stock. Even today, there is a vigorous literature in New York, including drama and journalism. The *Jewish Daily Forward*, in Yiddish, is the American foreign-language newspaper with the largest circulation.

Survival of Yiddish in America. At this point the author can do no better than to quote Joshua Fishman's conclusion in his comprehensive monograph *Yiddish in America: A Socio-Linguistic Description and Analysis* (1965), which is the result of a systematic study of all the facets of Yiddish language maintenance in the United States.

> *Most inquiries concerning Yiddish conclude with some comment as to whether or how long Yiddish will continue to survive. Certainly, this question is put much too crudely, for there are various levels of language survival. It survives today at least as the "passive vernacular" for that portion of American Jewry for whom it was an "active vernacular" during childhood days in Eastern Europe and during younger, "greener" immigrant days in the United States. It survives today as a language in which at least a sixth of American Jewry can make itself understood when it needs to and wants to. It survives today as a language which probably a quarter of American Jewry can understand when it needs to and wants to. However, these are not necessarily the only levels of language survival that may legitimately be taken into consideration.*

> *At another level, languages survive as long as the ideals, aspirations, and creations expressed through them continue to elicit interest. At this level, Yiddish will never die, for Yiddish literature and Yiddish writings on Zionism, Jewish socialism and labor movement, Hasidism and other religious, moralistic and folkistic expressions of Eastern European Jewry, will constantly elicit interest among cognoscenti and scholars. In this sense, very little of what Jews have ever created has ever died, for the Jewish cultural experience has always been that of a constantly growing heritage rather than of a permanently fixed one. Jewish generations vary as to their interest in their own heritage, but in every generation there are a few conscientious keepers of of the flame and, among these, Yiddish will always have its share of true scholars and true believers.*

Yiddish Secular Schools. Yiddish schools appeared in the United States around 1910 when waves of Jewish immigration brought to American shores a considerable number of Jewish workers and intellectuals who had been participating in Jewish socialist and cultural movements in Tsarist Russia.[1] At the convention of Poale Zion in Montreal (October 1910) a resolution was adopted laying the basis of a system of National-Radical Yiddish schools and six weeks later the first one opened in New York.

Three distinct ideological-organizational variants of Yiddish schools developed and are still recognizable today: (1) The Workmen's Circle ("Arbeter Ring"), with socialist tendencies, maintains the largest network of Yiddish secular schools. Some schools broke away from the Arbeter Ring in the late 1930's, formed a school organization of their own, and still function today, teaching Yiddish to some 3,000 students and occasionally publishing texts and curriculum materials. (2) The Jewish National Workers Alliance sponsors so-called Hebrew-Yiddish schools ("Farband" or "Jewish Folk School"). From the beginning, these schools included Hebrew in the curriculum, and trends show increasing emphasis on Hebrew, unfortunately to the detriment of Yiddish. (3) The Sholem Aleichem Folk Institute operates the third school system, largely limited to the New York City area, in which this time Yiddish predominates over Hebrew.

The Yiddish secular schools movement is widely ramified. It has kindergartens, elementary schools, high schools, teachers' seminaries,[2] and summer camps, which are also engaged in important educational activities.[3] All three school systems have publishing divisions for textbooks and other school materials.

These schools, which are almost exclusively located in New York and the Middle Atlantic States, stress the need for educating the children *in Yiddish*, the language of the parents, so as to retain ties with recent Jewish history and cultural creativity in eastern Europe and to prevent the splintering of the Jewish family into two groups without a common language and a common outlook. In 1948, eighty percent of the pupils were third generations Americans with little or no knowledge of Yiddish prior to their school enrollment. School hours had to be lengthened to compensate for this deficiency. In 1947-48 the Jewish National

Workers Alliance established the first Yiddish-Hebrew all day school in New York (Kinnereth).[4]

Together these three kinds of Yiddish schools account for only one percent of all American children now receiving some type of Jewish education. Latest (1968) statistical data[5] report an enrollment of 4,364 in Yiddish schools, 5.6 percent of whom are in all-day schools; 72.1 percent in two- to five-day schools; and 22.2 percent in one-day schools. Sixty percent of these students are in the New York area.

Yiddish will definitely not become a vital language as a result of attendance at these schools, which are decreasing in number, but they do manage to keep alive an acquaintance with and a sentimental attachment to it. In the last two decades, greater emphasis has been placed on the traditional curriculum (Bible, Hebrew, prayers, family celebrations, and traditional holidays). Most afternoon and all day schools still teach, history, literature, and customs in Yiddish, but each year less and less.

Recent introduction of courses conducted in Yiddish in respected colleges and universities has lifted morale at a time when the language is losing its position as the primary language of Jewry in the world.

Hebrew in the United States

Present Status and Prospects. Hebrew is the mother tongue of only a very small portion of American Jewry. The 1960 census enumerated only 38,346 foreign born residents claiming Hebrew as their mother tongue. Many of these either used the term as a "euphemism" for Yiddish or are recent re-migrants from Isreal.[6] The figure is very close to the total number of native speakers within our borders. Half of them (18,257) live in the New York metropolitan area. Los Angeles contains 2,919; Boston, 1,325; Chicago, 1,231; and Philadelphia, 1,216. Hebrew was nearly a dead language before having been revived in 1948 by the creation of the State of Isreal, where it is almost exclusively spoken today (1.2 million native speakers). It is because this language is accorded a special reverence in the Jewish faith that Hebrew is protected and studied.

Greatest skill in the language is achieved by two different groups in America: the ultra Orthodox and the secular Zionists. The former are frequently masters of Biblical, Talmudic, and Medieval Hebrew. They use the language in prayer, ritual, and religious studies, but most of them still consider it to be too holy to be used as a vernacular in everyday life, although a small number of rabbinic, scholarly, intellectual families have adopted it as their mother tongue. Secular Zionist American Jews have adopted Modern Hebrew as a vernacular for ideological reasons.[7]

The average American Jew is unable to use Hebrew as a means of communication. Young Jews are unlikely to be able to use it correctly in worship; although they are taught the language for ideological reasons, they very seldom acquire a native mastery of it.

The rebirth of the State of Israel is an increasingly efficacious support strengthening the position of Hebrew in the United States. Now, the learning of this language, which has been classified by the National Defense Education Act of 1958 as "critical," takes a new meaning for both adults and youngsters. Various agencies of the Israeli government as well as a number of organizations devote time and effort to teach the language to American Jews. Courses are organized, teaching materials prepared, qualified teachers imported from Israel, and low cost tours of Israel conducted, always with the main objective of "Hebraizing the Diaspora."

In conclusion, we can ascertain that the prestige of the Hebrew language has never been higher and the interest in it never so strong, so that future generations are assured of seeing its importance grow slowly but surely.

The Study of Hebrew. Controversy rages over the study of Hebrew. Principal questions are: What should be the realistic goals of Hebrew study for the majority of American Jewish children whose mother tongue is English and who intend to stay in the United States? Should the goal be to make them use the language as a means of communication in everyday life ("Hebraizing the Diaspora") or as a means of participating in traditional worship and practice? Should the student become a reader of classical works, or does he need Hebrew as a living language of contemporary usefulness? Which pronunciation should be used: the Israeli or the traditional eastern European one?

These questions are still open to discussion, and Jewish educators have not found the final answer yet, but in the meantime Hebrew is taught in the United States. It is a required subject in weekday afternoon schools and all day schools and is offered in about half of Sunday schools. Language mastery is often reinforced by other subject matter taught in Hebrew, e.g. Bible, Jewish history, customs and ceremonies, prayer and worship. In Boston, for example, it is the medium of instruction for these subjects taught in afternoon schools affiliated with the Bureau of Jewish Education. Only in all-day schools, which devote twelve to twenty hours per week to Hebrew instruction, is the language mastered effectively. In such schools, it is commonly used as the exclusive language of instruction for many, if not all, Jewish related subjects.[8]

Recently, the number of colleges[9] and high schools teaching Hebrew as a classical and/or living language has considerably increased. Many Hebrew Teachers Colleges, such as the one in Brookline, Massachusetts, teach such courses as archaeology, philosophy, teacher education, besides Judaica and Hebraica, in Hebrew.

Conclusion

The 1950's and 1960's have focused the attention of organized Jewry on the education of its youth. The proportion of children receiving some form of Jewish education has risen to include about one-third of all Jewish children ages three through seventeen in the country, for a total estimated enrollment of 554,468. Since attendance is normally only for three years or so, the total proportion reached is larger, but the total getting a reasonably complete education is much smaller.

Since 1962, when only seven percent of Jewish children attended a Jewish secondary or college level school, the number of such institutions and enrollments has increased to encompass perhaps fifteen percent. Day schools in particular have grown more rapidly since the 1940's than other Jewish educational institutions. Still, in 1962, less than ten percent of pupils attending Jewish schools were in all-day schools, and in 1968 the percentage had risen to only approximately fourteen percent. It is argued that supplementary schools cannot provide even a minimal acceptable level of education, owing in large part to the brevity of time the children are in attendance there (two to two and a half hours in a weekday afternoon school).

GREEK SPEAKERS IN THE UNITED STATES

Immigration

By 1931 one-half million Greeks had immigrated to the U.S. Most planned to stay temporarily in the U.S., and eventually about forty percent returned to the homeland with their savings. Therefore, perpetuation of Greek language and culture was of prime importance in the early 1900's, and Greek churches, newspapers, and schools received ample support. Churches accepted the task of teaching Greek, often after school, enrolling children as young as five or six. However, the schools were often poor in quality because of lack of good teachers and equipment, length of the school day for children, lack of cooperation between parents and teachers, financial problems, location of schools, etc. In addition to these part-time efforts, there were some all-day schools, which taught only in Greek.

Localism and provincialism of some Greeks carried over into the U.S. The resultant antagonism and division hindered unification and cooperation in this country.

World War I. During the war many Greek immigrants decided to remain permanently in the U.S. Americanization drives of the war and postwar years convinced many Greek Americans to become American citizens.

In 1922 the first of the two major "prestige" Greek American organizations was formed. Ahepa (American Hellenic Educational Progressive Association) was established as a secular body and used English as its vehicle. It has a junior organization, Sons of Pericles, for second generations boys ages 15-21. In 1956 Ahepa claimed 90,000 members—possibly an overestimate according to Theodore Saloutos, the foremost student of Greek Americans. Today it claims to be the largest fraternal organization of Greek Americans and to have 800 chapters. Ahepa supports a theological seminary in Brookline, Mass. A teacher preparation school, St. Basil's Academy in Garrison, N.Y., is maintained by Ahepa and the Greek Orthodox Archdiocese of North and South America.

The second major organization, the Greek American Progressive Association (GAPA), was established in 1923. It used the Greek language and was supported by the Greek Orthodox Church. It has generally been a weaker organization than Ahepa.

The 1920's mark the high point of Greek Americanism. During this decade both Ahepa and GAPA were organized, and Greek Americans began to participate in American affairs, in part by trying to influence Greek and U.S. government policies regarding Greece. Nevertheless, during the war and postwar years, the existence of Greek schools came under attack

World War II. The years during and after World War II brought an "era of respectability" to Greek Americans. The stigma of being Greek faded in the U.S. Greek Americans undertook substantial war relief work.

It is important to be aware that at times quota figures do not accurately reflect immigration. The majority of Greek immigrants since the war years entered on a non-quota basis. The annual quota for Greece, 1946-1960, was 308, but in those years 56,000 were admitted non-quota. The Refugee Relief Act of 1953 allowed almost 2,000 from Greece to enter without proof of assurance of job and housing. The amendment of 1954 provided further easing.

The increased immigration revived Hellenism in the U.S. and saved it, perhaps only temporarily, from extinction. However, tension between earlier immigrants and later refugees prohibited language and culture maintenance efforts of consequence.

Settlements: "Chicagopolis" and Tarpon Springs

Chicago's Delta, also known as Greektown, is the oldest and largest Greek settlement in the U.S. and the fourth largest Greek city in the world. It is a triangular section southwest of the Loop, the district where Halsted and Harrison Streets and Blue Island Avenue intersect. "Chicagopolis" also includes the Lincoln Square section, the near south side, and the Grand Boulevard, Pullman, and Ashland district. The estimated 125,000–150,000 Chicagoans of Greek descent keep alive some Hellenic customs.

Research conducted in 1961-62 revealed that the Greek community comprises about half the 7,000 population of Tarpon Springs, Florida. The fact that the sponge industry is the main livelihood of Greek-Americans in Tarpon Springs unites the Greek population psychologically and financially. "Greek is still the preferred language of the immigrants, and most of their American born descendants are bilingual and speak Greek as frequently and as fluently as English."[10]

Religion: The "Fourth Faith" in the U.S.

The Orthodox Church has about 1,750,000 communicants in the U.S. and 2-½ million in the Western Hemisphere.[11] Romanides estimates five million Orthodox in the U.S. for 1963 (80 percent American-born) and approximately 1,300,000 Greeks.

In 1964 *Newsweek* reported an "announcement that English would be used for the first time in portions of the church service, in recognition of the fact that 60 percent of the church membership now comes from U.S. born parents."[12]

Stycos emphasizes the importance of the Greek Orthodox Church in preserving the unity of the Greek American community. He writes in reference to the Greeks of Bridgetown (a fictitious New England town):

> *The significance of the Church to the structural unity of the community cannot be overemphasized. It holds its members together psychologically because it embodies the ethics and ideals they believe in, and brings them together structurally by its group ritual and social functions. It is the main unifying structure in the community...The Greek Orthodox Church is a*

> *national church, and unlike international religions it symbolizes nationality, adherence to it keeping alive and bulwarking national identity.*[13]
>
> *Many Orthodox leaders in America believe that English should be used as the primary medium of worship, in keeping with Orthodoxy's tradition which calls for the use of native languages. Others would like to see preservation in worship of the language of the New Testament, or the ancient language of their respective churches, or simply the language brought to America by their fathers or grandfathers. English has become the primary language for preaching, Sunday school teaching and administration in all Orthodox churches, and the secondary language for worship in all but one.*[14]

Schools

The Greek Orthodox Archdiocese of North and South America currently operates 16 day schools in the U.S. History and religion are offered exclusively in Greek or bilingually; Greek language is quite naturally an important segment of the curriculum.

Community churches maintain approximately 450 afternoon schools. There, too, Greek history and religion are offered in Greek. English is used at the discretion of the instructor.

Further information on Greek church related schools may be requested from the Office of Education, Greek Orthodox Archdiocese of North and South America, 10 East 79th Street, New York, New York 10021 (Emmanuel Hatziemmanuel, Assistant Director).

Conclusion

"The rapid Americanization of the Greeks is a notable phenomenon. Interest in, and knowledge of, the language, culture and affairs of the homeland is declining rapidly among those born in the United States of Greek parentage."[15]

Greek Americans have evidently stirred up little interest among scholars and researchers in the U.S. Little has been written about them, and next to nothing about Greek American educational efforts.

HUNGARIANS IN THE UNITED STATES

Estimates of the number of native speakers of Hungarian in this country in 1960 range from 365,000 to 500,000. The census of that year shows 213,114 foreign-born speakers of Hungarian.

The Hungarian capital of America is Cleveland. Other important centers are Chicago, Bridgeport, Detroit, Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, Trenton, New York, and Youngstown. Outside these few centers, the Hungarian community has ceased to exist.

Hungarian language instruction in parochial schools was eliminated almost completely at the time of the Depression and has not been resumed. Within the past ten years, churches and cultural and social organizations have drifted away from using Hungarian as the language of official business. However, a few independent organizations, such as the Hungarian Scouting Association, seek to provide language classes for the public, and a few cities offer evening Hungarian classes in the public high schools.

As discussed above with regard to the Greeks, educational and cultural differences between early immigrants and post World War II arrivals in the United States have made joint associations of the two groups either weak or impossible. As a rule, the later immigrants established a separate network of societies.

The key source of information about this group is Joshua A. Fishman, *Hungarian Language Maintenance in the United States* (Bloomington, Indiana University, 1966; Vol. 62, The Uralic and Altaic Series; 58 pp., including bibliography on pp. 54-58).

A directory useful to those interested in contacting the Hungarian-American population is *Hungarians in America*, edited by Tibor Szy (New York, Hungarian University Association, Inc., 1963; 606 pp.) This work includes biographical data on many Hungarian Americans, professional directory, lists of Hungarian publications in this hemisphere, Hungarian associations, Protestant and Catholic (Roman and Greek) Hungarian churches in North America, and location of library collections related to Hungarians.

UKRAINIAN SCHOOLS AND ORGANIZATIONS

Unlike Hungarians and Greeks, Ukrainian post-World War II immigrants seem to have joined the existing societies of earlier Ukrainian arrivals. In doing so, the former have caused far-reaching change, established new organizations, provided better leadership for Ukrainian Americans, and in general strengthened ethnic life. In contrast with the pre-War Ukrainian immigrants, mostly peasants and priests, who had an illiteracy rate approaching 55 percent, the post-War refugees were largely skilled workers, professionals, and intellectuals and approximately ten percent had a college education.

Schools concerned with Ukrainian American youth are of three principal types: secular weekend language schools, parochial all-day schools, and parochial afternoon schools. There is a strong network of weekend schools in the large metropolitan areas of this country. In 1962-1963 approximately 6,500 children ages six through fourteen were enrolled; most are the offspring of post-War refugees. In Chicago, for example, in 1969 there are seven Saturday schools conducting classes in Ukrainian language, literature, history, geography, and religion using Ukrainian as the medium of instruction. Children attending the schools (ages 7-17) are recruited mostly from recent immigrants, who consider Ukrainian their native language and use it at home in communicating with children. Some of the schools are under the supervision of the Educational Council of the Ukrainian Congress Committee of America, and the others, under the auspices of local churches authorities. Expenses are covered by contributions from the Parents' Committees.

Parochial all-day and afternoon schools enroll primarily children of American-born parents. In 1961-1962 all-day elementary schools instructed 8,458 children and the afternoon schools, an additional 12,597. However, many of these schools, especially the afternoon schools, do not teach the Ukrainian language any longer; the all-day church schools that offer Ukrainian (usually two hours per week) do not make the study of the language compulsory as it once was.

In the western provinces of Canada, an active interest in teaching Ukrainian by the audio-visual method has been coordinated by Dr. S. J. Kalba of the Ukrainian Canadian Committee (456 Main Street, Winnipeg 2, Manitoba). Dr. Yar Slavutych of the University of Alberta has prepared a new Ukrainian text, workbook, and tapes. The course will be taught in some of the Ukrainian schools in Philadelphia.

Dr. Edward Zarsky (P.O. Box 391, Cooper Station, New York, New York 10003 or in care of Ukrainian School Council, 25-20 37th Street, Astoria, New York) is chairman of the Educational Council of the Ukrainian Congress Committee of American and head of the "Skilna Rada", which has some 70 non-sectarian schools teaching Ukrainian on Saturdays. Mr. Miroslav Samchyshyn (1900 North Nashville, Chicago, Illinois 60635) has information concerning the Saturday schools operated by the Ukrainian Orthodox Church.

The strongest organizations among Unkrainian Americans are the churches and the mutual aid societies. In 1961 there were 317 Ukrainian Catholic and Orthodox parishes in the United States serving an estimated 450,000 members. More than half of the parishes were located in just three states, Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey. Since World War II the number of parishes and parishioners has been increased by the influx of the many refugees admitted to this country on a non-quota basis. Still, the proportion of foreign-born parishioners amounts to only about one-third of the total number of members.

The Ukrainian National Association (2435 West Chicago Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60622) is the largest and most dynamic Ukrainian American society. Founded in 1893, its membership has steadily increased since World War II and in 1961 totaled 79,600. The Education Research Committee of the Cultural Commission of the UNA is chaired by Mr. Myron B. Kuropas (1752 North Normandy Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60635). Other major societies are the Ukrainian Workingmen's Association, the Providence Association of Ukrainian Catholics, and the National Aid Association.

All told, children of post-War immigrants are receiving the most intensive language training. They are the ones who are most likely to be enrolled in weekend language classes and/or parochial all-day schools. Furthermore, such organizations as the Ukrainian Scouting Association and the Association of Ukrainian Youth are maintained for their benefit to reinforce the use of Ukrainian in an informal setting. As a result, most of these children can and do use the Ukrainian language outside familial and organizational contexts.

The principal question at issue among Ukrainians committed to language and community maintenance in the United States is this dilemma: Should knowledge of Ukrainian be the *sine qua non* of community membership, or should a young person be recognized as an integral organizational member and then be expected to improve his language skills through greater association and participation in the group.[16]

LITHUANIAN EDUCATION

Lithuanian educational efforts in this country are limited at present to parochial and Saturday schools. Of the former, there are very few that still teach the Lithuanian language, although half of the 120 Lithuanian Roman Catholic parishes maintain their own schools. Until the late 1930's almost all these schools both taught Lithuanian and used it as a medium of instruction. The teaching staff has been supplied largely by the Sisters of Saint Casimir.

The main teaching of Lithuanian is accomplished today by approximately 50 Saturday schools, with some 240 teachers and 4,000 pupils. Local chapters of the Lithuanian American Community, Inc., sponsor these schools. The organization plans minimal programs, publishes texts, etc. Until recently, most of the basic instruction in the schools was accomplished in Lithuanian, but there are now reports that some beginning classes in Chicago are conducted in English and use the text by Leonard Dambriunas, Antanas Klimas, and Schmalstieg, *Introduction to Modern Lithuanian* (Brooklyn: Franciscan Fathers Press, 1966).

The Lithuanian American community also supports Saint Anthony's High School (the Rev. Augustine Simanas, O.F.M., Principal, Kennebunkport, Maine 04046) and an institute in Chicago for the preparation of teachers.

For additional information on Lithuanian American education services, contact:
Sisters of Saint Casimir, 2601 Marquette Road, Chicago Illinois 60629
The Rev. V. Bagdanavicius, Director, Lithuanian Teachers Institute, 6336 South Kilbourn Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60629
Lithuanian American Community of the U.S.A., Inc. (Mr. Bronius Nainys, President, 6804 South Maplewood Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60629; Mr. Jonas Kavaliunas, Educational Affairs, P.O. Box 438, Beverly Shores, Indiana 46301)

NOTES

[1] See Yefroikin's "Yiddish Secular Schools in the United States," in his *The Jewish People: Past and Present*, Vol. II, pp. 144-150.

[2] The oldest of these is the Seminary of the Jewish National Workers Alliance, 1918.

[3] The first of these was Camp Boiberik in New York State.

[4] Another one is said to exist today, although the author does not know where.

[5] See Gerhard Lang's "Jewish Education" in the 1968 edition of the *American Jewish Yearbook*, pp. 370-383.

[6] Fishman, private communication.

[7] Fishman, *Yiddish in America*, pp. 78-79.

[8] For more information consult Alvin Schiff's recent book, *The Jewish Day School in America*.

[9] See Arnold Band's "Jewish Studies in American Liberal-Arts Colleges and Universities," published in the 1966 edition of the *American Jewish Yearbook*.

[10] Georges, "The Greeks of Tarpon Springs," p. 140.

[11] "The 'Fourth Faith,' " p. 52.

[12] Ibid.

[13] Stycos, "The Spartan Greeks of Bridgetown: Community Cohesion,"pp. 26-27.

[14] Romanides, "The Orthodox: Arrival and Dialogue," p. 1402.

[15] Wittke, *We Who Built America*, p. 460.

[16] The research gratefully acknowledges the valuable assistance of Messrs. Kuropas and Samchyshyn. Much of the foregoing is also based on Vladimir C. Nahirny and Joshua A. Fishman's. "Ukrainian Language Maintenance Efforts in the United States," Chapter 12, (pp. 318-357), with 31 item bibliography in Fishman's *Language Loyalty in the United States.*

APPENDIX V

BILINGUAL PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The first of these two lists identifies bilingual programs known to have been operating as of May 1969. Unless otherwise noted, it is to be presumed that they will continue, whether or not they are funded for 1969-1970 under the Bilingual Education Act. The second list consists of those programs which have been funded for 1969-1970. In this second list an asterisk (*) indicates those programs which are continuations or transformations of programs in the first list.

Information needed for compiling the first list comes from three sources: a survey questionnaire, correspondence, and personal visits or telephone calls. Dr. Vera P. John, Director of the Early Childhood Bilingual Education Project, Yeshiva University, New York, New York, generously allowed us to use a questionnaire which she had prepared for a survey of early childhood bilingual programs in Spanish and Indian languages, now completed and soon to be published. She also made available to us many completed questionnaires. The list of funded programs was sent to us by Mr. Ralph Becker, who is responsible for administering Title VII programs.

Like all compilers, we have found that the ideals of consistency and completeness have eluded us. In determining criteria for inclusion we were guided by the definition of bilingual education contained in the Act itself: "instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part or all of the school curriculum." We have therefore included programs (1) using two languages as mediums and (2) using the non-English language for regular instruction rather than incidentally. Thus the mere presence of bilingual aides did not qualify a program for inclusion in this list. Identified programs meeting these criteria range from a half hour's instruction in the non-English language every day to ones in which the non-English language is used 95 percent of the time at the beginning and is gradually reduced until it reaches parity with English.

Secondary school programs presented us with a special problem. We identified a number of programs in which the regular foreign-language period is used for instruction in geography, history, civilization, or the humanities through the mediums of French, German, or Spanish. Students apparently receive *language* credit, not credit for geography, history, etc; nor do they receive double credit. Innovative and effective as such programs may be, they seemed to us more nearly identifiable with regular advanced foreign language courses than with any of the newer bilingual designs.

Likewise, we have not knowingly included unilingual schools despite the fact that graduates of non-English medium schools in an English-speaking environment may turn out to be accomplished bilinguals. And we have not included programs in which English as a second language (ESL) is the only language component.

Of the total list of bilingual programs we have identified (56 in number), 49 are in preprimary or elementary grades, 4 are in secondary, and 3 in college. At first glance this seems unbalanced, especially if one considers the elementary grades to be the normal place for educational input and the secondary grades the place where one should expect educational output. Let us remember, however, that we are just getting started and that the lower grades are the proper starting point. Let us remember too that most of these programs are still rudimentary. Only as we learn how to operate elementary bilingual programs of quality leading to equally sound programs in the secondary school can we reasonably expect any notable educational output. While we shall have to wait until the 1980's for this year's beginners to graduate from high school, we should be able, within two or three years, to see whether these beginning programs will produce better school attendance, fewer failures and dropouts, and improved morale.

We have no illusions about the completeness of our list. When we had insufficient data, we omitted programs. Some of the missing ones may meet the criteria decided upon. Only recently we received a list of 16 Greek parochial day schools that are said to be bilingual, but time did not permit us to investigate these.

Although we have included some private and parochial schools, which are often freer than public schools to try out unusual ideas, we suspect that there may be a larger "iceberg" of still unknown bilingual programs under our private listings than under the public list.

Though it is almost surely incomplete, the 1968-1969 list serves to suggest the extent of bilingual experimentation already begun. Considered in comparison with the list of funded programs for 1969-1970, it points to a steady increase in the number of programs. Nonetheless, it is quality, not numbers, which will decide success or failure.

I. EXISTING PROGRAMS, 1968-69

Arizona

FT. DEFIANCE: Headstart Program
Languages: English – Navajo
Level: Preprimary – Elementary (preschool – grade 1)
Remarks: English and Navajo mixed in all instruction. Began 1965.
Further Information: Head Start Program Director, Office of Navajo Economic Opportunity, Ft. Defiance, Arizona 86504.

KAYENTA: Kayenta Public School
Languages: English – Navajo
Level: Elementary (grades 1 and 4)
Remarks: Phonics, spelling, and reading in both languages. Began 1968.
Further Information: Genevieve Hurst, Primary Supervisor, Box A-7, Kayenta Public School, Kayenta, Arizona 86033.

PHOENIX: Wilson Elementary School District No. 7
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grade 1)
Remarks: Modest beginning; emphasis on language arts. Began 1968.
Further Information: Jack Null, Administrative Assistant, Wilson Elementary School District 7 2411 E. Buckeye Road, Phoenix, Arizona 85034

ROCK POINT: Rock Point School
Languages: English – Navajo
Remarks: Reading and math in both languages. Began 1968.
Further Information: Wayne Holm, Principal, Rock Point Boarding School, Via Chinle, Arizona 86503.

ROUGH ROCK: Rough Rock Demonstration School
Languages: English – Navajo
Remarks: Informal instruction in both languages from age three or four. Navajo-run. Stresses community involvement and materials production. Began 1966.
Further Information: Dillon Platero, Director, Rough Rock Demonstration School, Chinle, Arizona 86503.

California

CALEXICO: Calexico Unified School District
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Secondary (grades 7-9)
Remarks: Social studies taught bilingually. Began 1966.
Further Information: Mrs. Edith Donlevy, Coordinator, Federal Projects, Calexico Unified School District, Box 792, Calexico, California 92231.

MARYSVILLE: Yuba County Reading-Learning Center
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 3)
Remarks: Ungraded. Spanish literacy and ESL (see explanation of abbreviations at end of this

appendix) taught as background for regular curriculum in English. Began 1966.
Further Information: Eleanor Thonis, Yuba County Reading-Learning Center, 11th Avenue and Powerline Road, Olivehurst, California 95901.

OLIVEHURST: See **MARYSVILLE**

REDWOOD CITY: Community Play Center
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Preprimary (nursery ages 3-5)
Remarks: Private. Three mornings a week. All children Spanish-speaking. Approximately equal time for each language. Began 1964.
Further Information: Josephine E. Gillaspy, Director, Bilingual Preschool Program, 703 Vernal Way, Redwood City, California 94062.

SAN DIEGO: ESL/Bilingual Demonstration Project
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Preprimary – Elementary – Secondary (one class preschool, one K, one class grades 4-6 combined, two classes grades 7-9 combined)
Remarks: In preschool and K, half hour a day basic concepts in Spanish; in 4-6, half hour social studies in Spanish; in 7-9, one hour each in math and social studies in Spanish; ESL three hours a day in 7-9, half hour a day at lower levels. Began 1968.
Further Information: Herbert Ibarra, Project Director, ESL/Bilingual Demonstration Project Center, 2950 National Avenue, San Diego, California 92113.

SAN FRANCISCO: French American Bilingual School
Languages: English – French
Level: Preprimary – Elementary (low K – grade 6)
Remarks: Private. Low and high K and grade 1 almost entirely in French; grades 2-6, half time in each language. All native teachers. Began 1963.
Further Information: Jeanette Rouger, Director, 940 Grove Street, San Francisco, California 94114.

STOCKTON (1): Stockton Unified School District
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 2)
Remarks: Children of several ethnic groups mixed. Science, social studies, and self-concept in both languages using SEDL materials (see explanation of abbreviations at end of this appendix). Began 1968.
Further Information: Ricardo Valenzuela, Director of Bilingual Education, 701 N. Madison Street, Stockton, California 95202.

STOCKTON (2): Elbert Covell College
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: College
Remarks: Student body half U.S., half Latin American nationals. Spanish is college langugage of communication. Proficiency in English also required for graduation. Began 1963.
Further Information: Arthur J. Cullen, Provost, Elbert Covell College, University of the Pacific, Stockton, California 95204.

District of Columbia

See **WASHINGTON, D.C.**

Florida

MIAMI: Dade County Public Schools
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grades 1-6)
Remarks: Coral Way School was first of the present public elementary programs, began 1963. Teams of two teachers (one English-speaking and one Spanish-speaking) handle two classes by trading. Approximately equal emphasis on each language. Pilot site for development of Miami Lingustic Readers (ESL). Some other schools now involved with variations in pattern.
Further Information: Mrs. Rosa G. de Inclán, Coordinator, Bilingual Education, Dade County Public Schools, 1410 N.E. Avenue, Miami, Florida 33132.

Illinois

CHICAGO: Bilingual Upper Grade Center, Lafayette School
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grades 5-8)
Remarks: Forty Spanish-speaking children drawn from eight schools (a.m., ESL; p.m., math, social studies, science, and health in Spanish). Began 1968.
Further Information: Natalie Picchiotti, Principal, Pulaski School, 2230 West McLean Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60647.

Maine

FRENCHVILLE: Frenchville Public Schools
Languages: English – French
Level: Preprimary (K)
Remarks: Very high concentration French-speaking children. Approximately equal time for each language. Began 1968.
Further Information: Martin Daigle, Superintendent of Schools, Frenchville, Maine 04745.

VAN BUREN: Van Buren Public Schools
Languages: English – French
Level: Preprimary (K) (Age 4-K)
Remarks: Very high concentration French-speaking children. Approximately equal time for each language. Began 1968.
Further Information: Charles Tanous, Superintendent of Schools, Van Buren, Maine 04785.

Massachusetts

BELMONT: Ecole Bilingue
Languages: English – French
Level: Preprimary – Elementary (nursery – grade 5)
Remarks: Private. Greater emphasis on French in preprimary; from grade 1 on, equal emphasis on French and English with both languages used alternately in all subjects. Reading taught first in French. Began 1963.
Further Information: Mrs. Nicole Floresco, Ecol Bilingue Inc., 380 Concord Avenue, Belmont, Massachusetts 02178.

LOWELL: Hellenic American School
Languages: English – Greek
Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 6)
Remarks: Children of Greek background, including 20 percent immigrants. In K, bilingual teachers give approximately equal time to each language. In 1-6, at least two hours a day in Greek for language arts, math, Greek history, geography, mythology. Team teaching in 1-6.
Further Information: Mrs. Angelike P. Georgalos, Principal, Hellenic American School, 41 Broadway Street, Lowell, Massachusetts 01852.

Michigan

LANSING: High Street Elementary School
Languages: English – Spanish
Remarks: Spanish language arts half hour a day. Migrant children. Pilot site for development of FLICS Spanish materials (see explanation of abbreviations at end of this appendix).
Further Information: Ford Caesar, High Street Elementary School, Lansing, Michigan.

ORCHARD LAKE (1): St. Mary's Preparatory School
Languages: English – Polish
Level: Secondary (grades 9-12)
Remarks: Parochial. Polish obligatory for all students each year. Includes some humanities. Pilot site for development of FLICS Polish materials.

Further Information: Richard Kubinski, Polish Teacher, St. Mary's Preparatory School, Orchard Lake Road, Orchard Lake, Michigan 48034.

ORCHARD LAKE (2): St. Mary's College

Languages: English – Polish

Level: College

Remarks: Polish obligatory each year. Includes some humanities. Treated as language which graduates will use as lay or religious leaders of Polish-American Community.

Further Information: Rev. Leonard F. Chrobot, Academic Dean, St. Mary's College, Orchard Lake, Michigan 48034.

New Jersey

ENGLEWOOD: Bilingual Education for Spanish-Speaking Students

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K - grade 6)

Remarks: About 90 Spanish-speaking children drawn from four schools into multi-age-level nongraded system. Language arts one hour per day in Spanish; rest of day with regular classes in English. Began 1968.

Further Information: Lynn Janicker, Speech and Language Consultant, Liberty School, Englewood, New Jersey.

HOBOKEN: Hoboken Public Schools

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grades 1-2)

Remarks: For Spanish-speaking children. Emphasis on Spanish, including literacy. Limited use of English at this level. Began 1967.

Further Information: Thomas F. McFeely, Superintendent of Schools, 524 Park Avenue, Hoboken, New Jersey 07030.

PASSAIC: Passaic Bilingual Program

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary – Elementary – Secondary (K – grade 9)

Remarks: Spanish-speaking children spend half day in regular curriculum with English-speaking children; other half day separate, as follows: two hours in subjects in Spanish, half hour in ESL. About 500 children involved. Began 1968.

Further Information: Carmen N. Mariña, Head Bilingual Teacher, Passaic Board of Education, 29-31 Howe Avenue, Passaic, New Jersey 07055.

New Mexico

LAS CRUCES: Primary Program for Bilingual Students
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 2)
Remarks: Almost all children Spanish-speaking. Approximately equal time given to each language. In K, parallel instruction in English and Spanish; in 1-2, languages mixed. Stresses parental involvement. Began 1967.
Further Information: J. K. Southard, Coordinator of Federal Projects, Las Cruces School District No. 2, 301 W. Amador, Las Cruces, New Mexico 88001.

PECOS: West Pecos Elementary School
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grades 1-6)
Remarks: Most children are Spanish-speaking. Half hour a day language arts in Spanish at each grade level. Began 1965.
Further Information: Canuto Meléndez, Superintendent, Pecos Independent Schools, Pecos, New Mexico 87552,

SILVER CITY: Bicultural Orientation and Linguistic Development (BOLD)
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grades 1-6)
Remarks: Thirty minutes a day in science and social studies in Spanish at grades 1 and 2 for Spanish-speaking children; some language arts in each language at each grade level for both English-speaking and Spanish-speaking children. Public and parochial schools cooperate. Began 1967.
Further Information: Calvin Short, Director of Instruction, Bin 1060, Silver City Consolidated Schools, Silver City, New Mexico 88061.

New York

NEW YORK (1): The Bilingual School
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K - grade 5)
Remarks: Began all grades simultaneously in 1968, with approximately 5 percent of time in second language in K, moving toward 50 percent by grade 6. Language of various subjects alternates from year to year.
Further Information: Hernán LaFontaine, Principal, The Bilingual School, P.S. 25, 811 East 149th Street, Bronx, New York 10455.

NEW YORK CITY (2): Bilingual Science Program
Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Secondary

Remarks: Regular New York City science curriculum materials taught (or in some cases provided to individual students) in Spanish. Involves about 1,000 students in 10 junior highs and two intermediate schools.

Further Information: Carmen S. Sanguientti, Bilingual Science Program Coordinator, Board of Education of the City of New York, 131 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York 11201.

NEW YORK CITY (3): Ocean Hill-Brownsville

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 5)

Remarks: Initial stress (K–2) on mother tongue for each group, other languages oral. In 3-5, instruction mixed for Spanish-speakers; 45 minutes daily Spanish for English speakers. Parental involvement. Began 1968.

Further Information: Luis Fuentes, Principal, P.S. 155-K, 1355 Herkimer Street, Brooklyn, New York 11233.

NEW YORK CITY (4): The Fleming School

Languages: English – French

Level: Preprimary – Elementary (nursery - grade 8)

Remarks: Private. Aims to make English-speaking children bilingual. In N-1, half day in French language arts; in 2-8, 90 minutes a day in French including language arts and physical education. Reading taught first in French (K), then in English (1). Began 1957.

Further Information: Mrs. Douce Fleming Correa, The Fleming School, 35 East 62nd Street, New York, New York 10021.

NEW YORK CITY (5): St. Sergius High School

Languages: English – Russian

Level: Secondary (grades 7-12)

Remarks: Private coeducation college preparatory. Half of students are of Russian extraction, but all speak English. Russian as foreign language for non-Russian-speaking students required four years; Russian-speaking study at grade level in both languages.

Further Information: E. L. Charrier, Director of Studies, St. Sergius High School, 1190 Park Avenue, New York, New York 10028.

NEW YORK CITY (6): East Harlem Block Schools

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary (nursery from age 3)

Remarks: Children free to use either language. Simultaneous activities in both. Spanish also used occasionally in grades 1-2. Began 1965.

Further Information: Tony Ward, Director, East Harlem Block Schools Inc., 94 East 111th Street, New York, New York.

NEW YORK CITY (7): U. N. International School

Languages: English – French

Level: Preprimary – Secondary (K – grade 12 or International Baccalaureate)

Remarks: Five private schools; 75 percent are children of diplomats. Approximately equal use of English and French in early grades, then somewhat more Englishh.

Further Information: Desmond Cole, Director, U.N. International School, 418 E. 54th Street, New York, New York.

Oklahoma

STILWELL: Adair County Dependent Schools

Languages: English – Cherokee

Level: Preprimary (ages 2-5)

Remarks: Exploratory program March 1968-May 1969 begun through South Central Regional Educational Laboratory. Also involved mothers.

Further Information: J. L. Hallford, Superintendent, Adair County Dependent Schools, County Court House, Stilwell, Oklahoma 74960.

Texas

BANDERA: Bandera School

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grade 1)

Remarks: Language arts and math in first language. Remainder of day in English for all. Began 1966.

Further Information: Marvin C. Schnelle, Superintendent of Schools, Box 727, Bandera, Texas 78003.

CORPUS CHRISTI (1): Corpus Christi Independent School District

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – 2)

Remarks: Ninety-eight percent of children Spanish-speaking. Language arts and art in both languages; math, science, and social studies in English with Spanish used as needed. Began 1967.

Further Information: Dan McLendon or Antonio Pérez, Corpus Christi Independent School District, Box 110, Corpus Christi, Texas 78403.

CORPUS CHRISTI (2): Dos Mundos School

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary (nursery – K)

Remarks: Private. Approximately equal time in each language. Structured instruction plus play. Began 1968.

Further Information: James Larick, Director, Dos Mundos School, 878 Oak Park Avenue, Corpus Christi, Texas 78408.

CREEDMOOR: See **DEL VALLE**

DEL RIO: Garfield Elementary School
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grade 1)
Remarks: Language arts, music and physical education taught in Spanish. Forty-five minutes a day to both English-speaking and Spanish-speaking children. Bilingual teachers.
Further Information: R. J. Waddell, Principal, Garfield Elementary School, Del Rio, Texas.

DEL VALLE: Creedmoor Elementary School
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grades 1-5)
Remarks: Ungraded. Spanish language arts one hour a day (as first or second language for respective groups); remainder of day approximately equal time each language. Began 1967.
Further Information: Mrs. Frances Vargas, Director, Creedmoor School, Del Valle, Texas 78617.

EDINBURG: Edinburg Consolidated Independent School District
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grades 1-3)
Remarks: Language arts in Spanish half hour a day. All participating teachers bilingual. Almost all children in these seven schools speak Spanish. Began 1965.
Further Information: Sam Evins, Superintendent, Edinburg Consolidated Independent School District, Edinburg, Texas.

KINGSVILLE: A and I Bilingual Program
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: College
Remarks: Courses in agriculture, engineering, and business administration in both languages. Began 1968.
Further Information: Mario Benítez, Bilingual Program Director, Texas A and I University, Kingsville, Texas.

LA JOYA: La Joya Independent School District
Languages: English – Spanish
Level: Elementary (grades 1-3)
Remarks: Approximately equal time for each language in all subjects. Bilingual teachers. Almost all children speak Spanish. Began 1-3 simultaneously 1968.
Further Information: Arturo Medina, Superintendent of Schools, La Joya, Texas 78560.

LAREDO (1): United Consolidated
Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grades 1-3)

Remarks: District bordering the city of Laredo. Approximately equal time in each language in all subjects. Bilingual teachers. About 50 percent of the children are Spanish-speaking. Began 1964.

Further Information: Harold Brantley, Superintendent of Schools, United Consolidated Independent School District, Box 826, Del Mar Hills, Laredo, Texas 78040.

LAREDO (2): Laredo City Schools

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grades 1-6)

Remarks: Spanish language arts 35-45 minutes a day, plus supportive use of Spanish as needed. Began 1960.

Further Information: Hermelinda Ochoa, Elementary Curriculum Director, Laredo Independent School District, 1702 Houston Street, Laredo, Texas 78040.

McALLEN: Central Elementary School

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 3)

Remarks: Program especially designed for Spanish-speaking migrant children, concentrated in this school. SEDL materials in English and Spanish.

Further Information: Tony Garcia, Principal, Central Elementary School, McAllen, Texas.

MISSION: Mission Public Schools

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grades 1 and 3)

Remarks: All children in program are Spanish-speakers. Spanish used approximately a third of time. Began 1968.

Further Information: Kenneth White, Superintendent of Schools, Mission, Texas 78572.

SAN ANTONIO (1): San Antonio Independent School District

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grades 1-5)

Remarks: Use of Spanish up to 1½ hours a day in selected experimental classes for science, self-concept, and language arts. Initial pilot site for development of SEDL materials in English and Spanish. Began 1964.

Further Information: Harold Hitt, Superintendent, San Antonio Independent School District, San Antonio, Texas.

SAN ANTONIO (2): Good Samaritan Center

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary (nursery and K)

Remarks: Private, now in cooperation with SEDL. Only Spanish-speaking children admitted. Spanish used approximately 80 percent of time. Structured periods of 15-20 minutes each in Spanish and English. Began 1965.

Further Information: Mrs. Gladys R. Blankenship or Shari E. Nedler, Good Samaritan Center, 1600 Saltillo Drive, San Antonio, Texas 78207.

SAN ANTONIO (3): Harlandale

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grade 1)

Remarks: Language arts in Spanish 1½ hours a day. Bilingual teachers. Began 1966.

Further Information: Callie Smith, Superintendent, Harlandale Independent School District, San Antonio, Texas.

SAN ANTONIO (4): Edgewood

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grade 1)

Remarks: Spanish language arts 2 hours a day, plus regular curriculum in English. Began 1968.

Further Information: José A. Cárdenas, Superintendent, Edgewood Independent School District, San Antonio, Texas 78237.

SAN MARCOS: San Marcos Public Schools

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Elementary (grade 1)

Remarks: Limited period of language arts in Spanish. Bilingual teachers. Began 1968.

Further Information: Shannon Doss, Superintendent of Schools, San Marcos, Texas.

ZAPATA: Zapata Public Schools

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 2)

Remarks: Approximately equal time in each language in K – 1; in grade 2, language arts in both, remainder in English. Began 1966.

Further Information: Antonio Molina, Superintendent of Schools, Zapata, Texas 78076.

Washington, D.C.

WASHINGTON: Washington International School

Languages: English – Spanish, English – French

Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 4)

Remarks: Private ungraded. One track is English – Spanish, the other English - French. All teachers native speakers. Children study half day in English, half day in other language. Began 1966.

Further Information: Mrs. Dorothy Goodman, Director, Washington International School, 3211 Volta Place, N. W., Washington, D. C. 2007.

Virgin Islands

ST. CROIX: Charles H. Emanuel School

Languages: English – Spanish

Level: Preprimary – Elementary (K – grade 2)

Remark: Half day in children's first language, half in second. In K, English-speaking and Spanish-speaking teachers trade sections. In grade 1, teachers are bilingual. In grade 2 both patterns are used (one section each).

Further Information: Mrs. Evelyn Williams, Principal, Charles H. Emanuel School, Kingshill, St. Croix, Virgin Islands 00840.

Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands

SAIPAN, etc.: Trust Territory Schools

Languages: English – local languages (e.g., Chamorro)

Level: Elementary

Remarks: Administrative Directive No. 67-4, dated 20 June 1967, directs that all children of this Trust Territory are to be made literate in their local language and English taught as a second language. Main language of instruction is English.

Further Information: Office of High Commissioner, Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Saipan, Mariana Islands 96950.

ABBREVIATIONS

The reader may need an explanation of the following abbreviations and acronyms:

ESL = English as a second language. For non-English-speakers this is the English component of a bilingual program. The first language is the mother tongue of the non-English-speaking children.

FLICS = Foreigh Languages Innovative Curricula Studies. A Ford Foundation supported center at Ann Arbor for the development of curricula and materials in foreign languages. Materials are under development in Dutch (Holland, Michigan), French (Grosse Pointe, Michigan), Polish (Orchard Lake, Michigan),and Spanish (Lansing, Michigan).

SEDL = Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, Austin, Texas. One of fifteen regional laboratories supported principally by funds from the United States Office of Education. SEDL serves Texas and Louisiana and has under development curricula, materials, and evaluation instruments for use in ESL bilingual programs (Spanish and eventually French), migrant programs, early childhood and adult education, and such subject areas as science, mathematics, self-concept, and social studies.

II. PROGRAMS FUNDED FOR 1969–1970

Arkansas

GENTRY: Gentry School District No. 19

Bilingual Curriculum Development for Cherokees

Languages: Cherokee, English OE 91-10 Approximate grant: $41,500

Description: Children in the first grade whose mother tongue is Cherokee will learn about the Cherokee culture while they are taught to read both Cherokee and English. A preliminary summer session will afford the children socialization experiences and reading readiness activities. A curriculum guide for the mother of preschool Cherokee children will be developed and will include instructions for parent-child activities at home designed to develop number concepts, color, shape and form discrimination, eye-hand coordination, descriptive language skills, listening skills and storytelling ability. Materials will be based on Cherokee stories to give the children a better understanding of their history and heritage, as well as the opportunity to see the written form of familiar oral phases. During the fall, basic reading skills will be developed through the utilization of the Cherokee language and alphabet. The final phase of the project will emphasize the continued development of these skills as the children develop basic skills in the English language and alphabet. Parents and other members of the community have been involved in the planning of the project and will continue to be involved in program operation.

Students served: 50, Grades K-1

Area served: Gentry School District No. 19

Further information: Royal R. Osburn, Project Director, P. O. Box 158, Gentry, Arkansas 72734. (501) 736-2251

Arizona

NOGALES: Nogales Elementary School District No. 1

Nogales Elementary Bilingual Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-116

Description: A bilingual education program in which students will be taught in both Spanish and English will begin with three first grade classes. Initially about 75 percent of the classroom instruction will be conducted in Spanish and 25 percent in English. As the children become more proficient in the second language, instruction will be more evenly balanced between the two. Classroom teachers and aides will be bilingual and will be offered preservice and inservice training. A liaison educator will be appointed to foster home-school communication and school community advisory committees will be established.

Students served: 107, Grade 1

Counties served: Santa Cruz

Further information: Wade W. Carpenter, Project Director, 402 Martinez Street, Nogales, Arizona. 85621. (602) 287-3626

PHOENIX: Phoenix Union High School System, District 210

Phoenix Union Bilingual Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-265 Approximate grant: $76,500

Description: A bilingual education program will be initiated for 100 high school students with the objective of expanding it to include a maximum of 1,000 students. The program, which will cover approximately one-half of the school day, will include instruction in English, Spanish, and social studies. During the remainder of the day, students will be free to select courses from the regular high school curriculum. Bilingual teacher aides will assist the classroom teachers and a bilingual counselor will make home visitations and provide educational and vocational counseling.

Students served: 100, Grade 9

Counties served: Maricopa

Further information: Paul Plath, Project Director, 225 North Sixteenth Street, Phoenix, Arizona 85006. (602) 252-8041

***PHOENIX:** Wilson Elementary School District No. 7

Individualizing Bilingual, Bicultural Instruction

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-66 Approximate grant: $26,500

Description: An English oral language program, a Spanish oral language program, and a Spanish language arts program will be established to improve the teaching of English to non-English-speaking children and to develop and improve the Spanish language skills of both Spanish and non-Spanish-speaking children. The oral English program will provide non-English-speaking children and Spanish-speaking children with an ability to speak fluent English and to comprehend spoken English. Non-Spanish-speaking children and Spanish-speaking children with oral language deficiencies will be given oral Spanish lessons. The Spanish language arts program, involving listening, speaking, reading, writing, and spelling skills, will be offered to children with a basic knowledge of Spanish. A team of four teachers working with one full-time and five part-time aides, will conduct the program. They will be offered both preservice and inservice training.

Students served: 100, Grade 1

Counties served: Maricopa

Further information: Jack Null, Project Director, 2411 East Buckeye Road, Phoenix, Arizona 85043. (602) 273-1207

TUCSON: Tucson Elementary School District No. 1

Bilingual Bicultural Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-310 Approximate grant: $80,302

Description: A pilot bilingual-bicultural program will be conducted in two preschool and three first grade classes. Preschool children and their parents will meet with a bilingual teacher and a bilingual aide once a week for a two-hour session. During the session, teachers will demonstrate activities and equipment easily duplicated at home. Materials will be loaned to the parents to help them continue the preschool experience until the next week. First grade instruction will be carried out in Spanish for one-third of the day, and in English for the remainder of the day. A bilingual representative from the community will be employed to serve as a link between the school and the community and to encourage parental involvement in classroom activities.

Students served: 450, Grades K-1

Counties served: Pima

Further information: Jewell C. Taylor, Project Director, P.O. Box 4040, Tucson, Arizona, 85717. (602) 791-6129

California

BARSTOW: Barstow Unified School District

Bilingual Program for Primary Children and Parents

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-227 Approximate grant: $36,500

Description: An oral language development program aimed at bilingual parents and their preschool, kindergarten, and first grade children in three school districts will be established in an area composed of both rural and urban sections which has a large Mexican American community. Nine teachers and eleven bilingual teacher aides will be trained to develop a bilingual developmental language program which uses the student's own language in an oral approach designed to erase as early as possible non-standard speech patterns. The levels of the children's language development in both Spanish and English will be identified and analyzed, and an oral development program will be established to increase vocabulary, correct punctuation, and develop knowledge of grammar and word form. Bilingual aides will work with the children's parents and with students of the Continuation School in oral language development. Volunteer parents and Continuation School students will also be trained to take an active part in the program.

Students served: 259, Grades Preschool-1, Grades 7-12

Counties served: San Bernardino

Further Information: M. T. Liljeblad, Project Director, 551 South H Street, Barstow, California 92311. (714) 256-0611

BRENTWOOD: Brentwood Union School District

Brentwood Bilingual Education Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-81 Approximate grant: $31,500

Description: A "buddy" system approach designed to create cultural and social understanding will be used in a bilingual demonstration class composed of third and fourth grade Anglo American and Mexican American children in a rural area which has many children who come from migrant families. Children in the program will be selected on the basis of teacher recommendations, recorded assessment, and a home visit made by the project teacher and his aide. The "buddy" system used will be based on a sociogramatic device applied after the first week of school. The teacher and his aide, both of whom will be bilingual, will develop a behaviorally oriented instructional package for use in the program. Instruction will be presented through the simultaneous utilization of both English and Spanish. An inservice program for non-project school staff will be developed to acquaint personnel with the objectives and methods of the project and to demonstrate the need similar modifications of overall educational programs. Periodic home visits will be made, and regular parent-school personnel meetings will be held.

Students served: 25, Grades 3-4

Counties served: Contra Costa

Further information: James L. Scott, Project Director, 929 Second Street, Brentwood, California 94513. (415) 634-3408

***CALEXICO:** Calexico Unified School District

Calexico Intercultural Design

Language Spanish, English OE 97-279 Approximate grant: $125,500

Description: Social studies will be used as a vehicle for acculturation in a bilingual program for Anglo American and Mexican American junior high school students from a rural area. Social studies areas which will be taught bilingually include basic study skills, United States history, world geography, and the California State requirements. The language arts program will include sequential instruction in speaking, reading, and writing English and Spanish. Students will be regrouped periodically throughout the year, with emphasis on small group and individual instruction. Bilingual teachers and teacher aides will conduct the program.

Students served: 180, Grades 7-9

Counties served: Imperial

Further information: Julian T. López, Project Director, P. O. Box 792, Calexico, California 92231. (741) 357-1133

CHULA VISTA: Sweetwater Union High School

Project Frontier

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-275 Approximate grant: $570,774

Description: Curriculum redevelopment will be the major emphasis of a comprehensive bilingual education program which will eventually affect all grades in five urban school districts. With Spanish-speaking children, Spanish will be used as needed for concept development in selected areas of study. The program will also seek to develop these children's literacy in Spanish and in English and will provide courses in study of the history and culture of the Spanish-speaking world. The English-speaking children will study Spanish throughout their school years and will learn about Mexican history and culture beginning in elementary school. Each of the five school districts involved will analyze and revise one area of the curriculum. Districts will also exchange program materials for implementation in all participating schools. A cooperative, in-depth inservice education program will be developed for project teachers, aides and administrators and will emphasize the nature and educational problems of Mexican American children, Mexican culture, strategies for improving home/community/school relationships, applied linguistics, techniques, methods and materials for teaching English as a second language and for teaching subject content using Spanish as the medium of instruction, and the Spanish language.

Students served: 595, Grades Preschool-12

Counties served: San Diego

Further information: Joseph Rindone, Jr., District Superintendent, Sweetwater Union High School District, 1130 Fifth Avenue, Chula Vista, California 92011. (714) 422-0171

COMPTON: Compton City School District
Compton Elementary Bilingual Education Plan
Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-229 Approximate grant: $76,500
Description: The native language abilities of Spanish-speaking kindergarten and first grade children in an inner-city area will be used as the primary medium of instruction until the student is capable of working in both English and Spanish. A bilingual teacher and aide will teach these children in a special classroom containing teaching materials gathered from Mexico and the Dominican Republic, which will be modified to meet local requirements. In this classroom, Spanish will be used as the medium of communication for a minimum of 80 percent of the day. The program of other kindergarten classes will be modified to include Spanish materials, bilingual aids, and instruction in the Spanish language and heritage; in these classes, English will be used as the medium of instruction for the major portion of the day. The bilingual teacher and the other two teachers will work as a team, with the bilingual teacher working in Spanish in the English-speaking classes and vice versa. Parents may also choose to send their children to standard kindergarten classes. A bilingual school aide will assist parents in understanding the program and helping their children. The facilities and staff of the community college will be used for inservice training of the aides which will be directed by the project coordinator. The same format will be used at the first grade level and will later be extended through the other grades.
Students served: 166, Grades K-1
Counties served: Los Angeles
Further information: Frank M. Goodman, Project Director, 604 S. Tamarind Street, Compton, California 90220. (213) 537-2700

EL MONTE: El Monte Elementary School District
El Monte Bilingual Education Project
Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-125 Approximate grant: $51,000
Description: The hypothesis that children who are provided with early verbal stimulations will follow a normal learning-growth pattern will be tested in a bilingual-bicultural program for Mexican American and Anglo American kindergarten children from an inner-city area. The program will also seek to determine if there is interference from the second language in the development of skills in the native language, since the children will be learning a second language in addition to reinforcing skills in their native tongue. The children will participate in learning activities which will provide development in the skills of both languages, improve perceptual motor growth, and aid in the development of positive self-images and the elimination of intercultural bias. The mixing of the children in the classroom and outside of the structured learning situation is designed to develop spontaneity of expression and acceptance of the fact that there are differences between cultures and that these differences enrich the total community.

Program staff and resources will include one bilingual-bicultural teacher, one bilingual teacher aide, one monolingual English-speaking aide, parents, older children working as tutors, and community organizations. Parent education will also be provided by the program.

Students served: 30, Grade K

Counties served: Los Angeles

Further information: William Oster, Project Director, 3540 N. Lexington Avenue, El Monte, California 91731. (213) 444-7781, Ext. 12

FRESNO: Fresno City Unified School District

Bilingual-Bicultural Title VII Proposal

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-283 Approximate grant: $101,500

Description: Development of the competence needed to employ two linguistic systems separately and consciously as mediums not only for speaking, but also for thinking will be the core of a curriculum-oriented program being developed to serve inner-city kindergarten and elementary school children in an area with a large Mexican American community. The curriculum will be redesigned for all elementary grades, beginning with kindergarten and first grade, and will include instruction in English as a second Language, lessons conducted in Spanish in specified subject areas, and reinforcement of English through other subject matter instruction. Those conducting the program will include a resource teacher, a teacher who also serves as a liaison between school and community, three bilingual teachers, and five bilingual aides. Inservice training will be provided for those involved in the program. Parents will be consulted before children are selected for the program, and activities designed to maintain their support will be initiated. These will include a "Dad's Club" and a close home-school liaison designed to both inform parents and obtain information from them about the progress of the program.

Students served: 110, Grades K-7

Counties served: Fresno

Further information: Harry C. Allison, Project Director, 3132 E. Fairmont Street, Fresno, California 93721. (209) 224-4350

FRESNO: Fresno County School

Learning and Communicating Bilingually

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-135 Approximate grant: $151,500

Description: The kindergarten and elementary school curriculums will be redesigned in a rural community which includes a population continuum ranging from immigrant Mexican to Mexican American, to Anglo American. The restructuring of the curriculum is designed to raise the school success potential of the Mexican American child to that of national norms by the fourth grade and to develop his ability to function successfully in and through two languages. It will also be designed to increase the academic achievement level of non-Spanish-speaking children. Learning activities will stress development in kindergarten and first grade children of the competence needed to employ two linguistic systems separately and consciously as mediums not only for speaking but also for thinking. As a means of achieving this competence, perceptual skills will be developed, and special emphasis will be placed on the development of auditory skills. The curriculum will include English as a second Language, lessons conducted in Spanish in specified subject areas, and reinforcement of English through other subject matter instruction. Kindergarten and first grade will be included in the first year of the program, with other grades being added in ensuing years. Each pilot curriculum will be revised after the first year for subsequent use. Bilingual teachers and teacher aides will conduct the program, and preservice and inservice training will be provided for them. The children's parents will receive information about the project and its objectives and will be encouraged to serve as program aides. Training will also be provided for interested parents to enable them to teach their preschool children English, while they are learning the language.

Students served: 200, Grades K-6

Counties served: Fresno

Further information: Ernest A. Poore, Project Director, 2314 Mariposa, Fresno, California 93721. (209) 268-6011

HAWAIIAN GARDENS: ABC Unified School District

Portuguese Bilingual Demonstration Project

Languages: English, Portuguese OE 97-272 Approximate grant: $33,500

Description: Portuguese literary contributions will be used in bilingual classes in Grades K-12 in three urban schools as a basis for cultural understanding, and Portuguese Americans will be used as guest consultants in a program which will incorporate the teaching of Portuguese and English-speaking students. Emphasis in the program will be on the development of communicative arts and skills. Portuguese and English instructional materials will be developed and tested, and a cultural resource center will be established to maintain and design cultural resource materials and instructional support materials. Placement tests will also be developed and field tested. Monthly meetings will be held for project teachers and aides, and specialized summer workshop training will be available to project personnel and interested administrators and teachers. Representatives of the community will be included in the program advisory committee, and monthly meetings will be held with the parents of participating students and other interested persons.

Students served: 392, Grades K-12

Counties served: Los Angeles

Further information: Charles J. Acosta, Project Director, 21815 South Norwalk Boulevard, Hawaiian Gardens, California 90715. (213) 860-3311, Ext. 366

HEALDSBURG: Healdsburg Union Elementary School District

Bilingual Education English-Spanish

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-65 Approximate grant: $26,500

Description: Twenty-five first grade children, nineteen Mexican American and six Anglo

American, who seem able to successfully assimilate instruction in English and Spanish over the course of the school year, will be selected to participate in the pilot project. A similar group will be selected as a control group. The control group will receive standard instruction while the project group receives subject matter instruction in English and experience instruction in Spanish. Other grade level teachers will receive inservice training during the year so that they may continue the program throughout Grade 1 in the second year. Plans are to implement the program progressively, one grade level a year, until bilingual instruction is offered through Grade 6. Project components include the instructional program, inservice training for the staff, auxiliary services to assist in selecting students and providing for evaluation, and parent involvement through various means.

Students served: 25, Grade 1

Counties served: Sonoma

Further information: John S. Kateley, 343 Healdsburg Avenue, Healdsburg, California 95448. (707) 433-5571

LA PUENTE: Hudson School District

Bilingual Understanding of Educational Needs of Others (BUENO)

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-217 Approximate grant: $205,264

Description: All segments of the Mexican American community in an urban area will be aided by a program aimed at elementary school children, high school students, and adults. Children in kindergarten and Grades 1-3 will receive standard elementary school instruction in English, with supplementary instruction in Spanish. The children will receive additional help in reading and vocabulary, writing and test taking, and achieving confidence in handling abstract concepts through individual and small group instruction, and additional tutoring in and out of school will also be available to them. Mexican American high school students who have been identified as potential dropouts will be offered the opportunity to be employed as tutors in the elementary school program. They will receive pre- and inservice training and teacher assistance to aid them in their tutoring. Mexican American adults will be recruited, employed and trained to serve as aides in the elementary school program. To broaden the cultural understanding of monolingual English-speaking children, Spanish will be taught in the elementary schools involved in the program; the culture and productions of the Mexican American people will be presented in some literature, social studies and art classes; children will engage in games, singing and dance reflecting Mexican American culture; and a Mexican American art and history week will be celebrated by children and their parents.

Students served: 1,120, Grades K-3

Counties served: Los Angeles

Further information: Frank W. Keohane, Project Director, 15959 East Gale Avenue, La Puente, California 91745. (213) 333-2201

LOS NIETOS: Los Nietos Elementary School District

Bilingual-Bicultural Experience for Children, Parents, and Teachers in the Los Nietos School District

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-132 Approximate grant: $81,500

Description: Three-year-old Mexican American children, their parents, and their teachers will be involved in learning activities designed to foster mutual understanding among all members of the project and the urban community at large. The children will participate in a nursery school program in which teachers will use English about 50 percent of the school day. The children will be involved in learning experiences which will help them develop understanding of their environment and the ability to use language as a tool for labeling, ordering, and manipulating stimuli in that environment. Teachers, aides and parents will participate together in a series of classes conducted in English and Spanish at a nearby college which will consist of instruction about Mexican American culture, Mexican culture, Califrnia culture, community resources, and child growth and development. Parents and teachers will also visit places of interest and value in promoting knowledge and understanding.

Students served: 30, Grade Preschool

Counties served: Los Angeles

Further information: Martha S. Hittinger, Project Director, P. O. Box 2006, Los Nietos, California, 90606.

***OLIVEHURST:** Marysville Joint Unified School District

Bilingual Instructional Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-75 Approximate grant: $70,500

Description: Literacy in Spanish will be fostered through oral-written language activities and through instruction in arithmetic, science, social studies, art, music, and literature. At the same time, proficiency in oral English will be developed through informal classroom activities and individualized reading instruction. Extensive out-of-school experiences will be used to illustrate and clarify concepts acquired in the classroom. Inservice training will include two study programs–one on teaching the bilingual child and one on teaching reading to Spanish-speaking pupils.

Students served: 200, Grades 1-8

Counties served: Yuba

Further information: Eleanor Thonis, Project Director, Yuba County Reading-Learning Center, 11th and Powerline Road, Olivehurst, California 95901. (916) 743-1849

POMONA: Pomona Unified School District

Bilingual Leadership Through Speech and Drama

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-33 Approximate grant: $30,500

Description: Dramatic arts and speech training in Spanish and English will be stressed in a program for Mexican American students in an inner-city which is also designed to strengthen their self-images and develop their leadership abilities, as well as to improve their language ability. Two bilingual instructors will work with each class, one a teacher with unusual English language competencies. Dramatic arts interpretation relevant to oral language use of Spanish and English will comprise one semester of the program, and the development of public speaking leadership qualities in English and Spanish will comprise the second semester of the program. Spanish-speaking teacher aides will serve with each classroom teacher. Tape recorders will be used for listening and practicing oral communication skills; and field trips will be made to plays, television stations, and public debates and panels. Personnel of the Padua Hills Theater, a local Mexican culture and drama center, will be used as resource persons, as well as Mexican American community members and school district personnel.

Students served: 105, Grades 7-8

Counties served: Los Angeles

Further information: Farrett C. Nichols, 800 South Carey Avenue, Pomona, California 91766. (714) 623-5251, Ext. 400

REDWOOD CITY: Redwood City School District

Pilot Bilingual Program for Grade One

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-141 Approximate grant: $26,500

Description: A target group of twenty Spanish-speaking children and ten English-speaking children will be grouped as a classroom unit and will be instructed in the development of speaking, reading, and writing skills in both their native language and the second language; the development of academic skills in their mother tongue; and the development of social science skills in both languages. Individual learning episodes will be developed and tested by project staff.

Students served: 30, Grade 1

Counties served: San Mateo

Further information: Jim W. Abbott, Project Director, 400 Duane Street, Redwood City, California 94062. (415) 365-1550

SACRAMENTO: Sacramento City Unified School District

Early Childhood Bilingual Education

Description: Bilingual instruction in language arts conceptual development and social studies conceptual development–enriched with extensive multicultural experiences–will be provided for preschool, kindergarten and first grade students. Parental involvement will be encouraged by conducting training sessions which will enable parents to assist their children at home, and by using volunteer parent aides within the classroom.

Students served: 260, Grades Preschool-1

Counties served: Sacramento

Further information: John J. Mamola, Director, Compensatory Education, Sacramento City Unified School District, P. O. Box 2271, Sacramento, California 95810. (916) 444-6060, Ext. 346.

ST. HELENA: St. Helena Unified Schools

Project Bilingual Education: Adelante!

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-220 Approximate grant: $22,500

Description: A bilingual teacher and a bilingual aide will develop and teach a four-part high school curriculum which will include courses in the humanities, social studies, and science taught in Spanish and English, and courses in English as a second language. Also included will be an honors course in humanities taught in Spanish; a course in Spanish communication skills for Spanish-speaking students; and a tutoring program providing individual instruction in courses such as math, science, and vocational education. Inservice training, community involvement, and continuing evaluation activities are planned. During the second year, the project will add an elementary school component.

Students served: 55, Grades 9-12

Counties served: Napa

Further information: William K. Noble, Project Director, Secondary School Level, 473 Main, St. Helena, California 94574. (707) 963-3604; Margaret Hall, Project Director, Elementary School Level. 1325 Adams, St. Helena, California 94574. (707) 963-2140

SALINAS: Gonzales Union High School District

Gonzales ESL/Bilingual Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-158 Approximate grant: $26,500

Description: Meeting the special educational, social and personal needs of Mexican American high school students whose families have recently immigrated into an agricultural area is the goal of a program that is designed to help these students acquire knowledge that is relevant and immediately useful both to them and to their families. Classes in English as a second language will be continued, and bilingual courses will be revised and expanded to include Spanish, basic mathematics, communication skills, library skills, vocational orientation, consumer mathematics, geography, and general orientation to life in the United States. Classes will be geared to individual pacing and progress to the greatest extent possible. Three bilingual teachers will conduct the classes, and preservice and inservice training will be provided for them by specialists in bilingual education, different subject areas and education of the disadvantaged and by consultants who are expert in developing individualized instructional materials.

Students served: 50, Grades 7-12

Counties served: Monterey

Further information: Joseph P. Licano, Project Director, 400 A Mesa Road, Salinas, California 93901. (408) 455-1771

SAN FRANCISCO: San Francisco Unified School District

Chinese Bilingual Pilot Program

Languages: Chinese, English OE 97-221 Approximate grant: $51,500

Description: A pilot class of twenty-five first grade students with a bilingual teacher and paraprofessional will be the first step toward building a full scale bilingual program for grades kindergarten to twelfth. The curriculum will be designed by a group of specialists and consultants and will include a variety of teaching strategies, styles, and materials. Activities will include intensive audiolingual drills in English and Cantonese, a nongraded reading program, a remedial reading program and literature, social studies, science, mathematics, and writing programs. A bilingual library for students and teachers and an afterschool tutoring program using older students and adults will be introduced.

Students served: 25, Grade 1

Counties served: San Francisco

Further information: Robert E. Jenkins, Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco Unified School District, 135 Van Ness Avenue, San Francisco, California 94102. (415) 863-4680

SANGER: Sanger Unified School District

Instructional Program in Bilingual Education

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-137 Approximate grant: $51,500

Description: A program emphasizing the development of coordinate bilingualism—the ability to employ two linguistic systems separately and consciously as mediums for speaking and thinking—will be established. The curriculum will include an English as a second language component as well as lessons conducted in both Spanish and English. In general, those areas in which a student must succeed in high school and college, for example mathematics, will be taught in English while areas which the student might associate with his own background, for example native literature, will be taught in Spanish. The program will begin at the kindergarten and first grade level, with a new level being added each year.

Students served: 45, Grades K-1

Counties served: Fresno

Further information: Olin C. Mosher, Jr., 1801 7th Street, Sanger, California 93657. (209) 875-6525

SANTA ANA: Santa Ana Unified School District

Bilingual Preschool Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-173 Approximate grant: $246,500

Description: Three- and four-year-old children will receive instruction in Spanish and English while their adult representatives (someone from the child's home 18 years or older) observe. The adults will be given instruction in learning English and/or Spanish and understanding American and/or Mexican culture while their children are taught and cared for by teacher aides. Provisions will be made for younger children so that the adults may participate in the program. Classroom sessions will last for three hours, with two hours devoted to instruction for the children and one hour to adult instruction.

Students served: 90, Grade Preschool

Counties served: Orange

Further information: Gerald Lance, Administrative Assistant, Federal Programs, Santa Ana Unified School District, 1405 French Street, Santa Ana, California 92701. (714) 547-5921.

SANTA BARBARA: Santa Barbara County Schools

Santa Barbara County Bilingual Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-200 Approximate grant: $76,500

Description: Teaching strategies, methods, and materials will be redesigned to meet the needs of students whose dominant language is Spanish. Preservice and inservice training for teachers and aides will acquaint them with instructional materials and teaching strategies and will prepare them for field testing newly developed materials in their classrooms. Baseline data on the target group of Mexican American children will be established to facilitate the screening and grouping of these children and to insure that project activities will be relevant to their needs. A community advisory structure will assist in various project components.

Students served: 170, Grades K-8

Counties served: Santa Barbara

Further information: Susan T. Flores, Project Director, 4400 Cathedral Oaks Road, Santa Barbara, California 93105. (805) 964-4711

SANTA CLARA: Santa Clara County Office of Education

Spanish Dame School

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-103 Approximate grant: $81,500

Description: Groups of five three- and four-year-old Spanish-speaking children will be instructed in their homes by bilingual teachers who are specially trained members of the community. These teachers also will spend one hour each week showing the mother of each child how to use the materials to further help her child. Two lead teachers will provide continuous inservice training in evaluating student progress and in developing curriculum and materials. In addition, each lead teacher and four aides will be equipped with a van specially designed as a traveling workshop.

Students served: 40, Grade Preschool

Counties served: Santa Clara

Further information: Glenn W. Hoffmann, County Superintendent of Schools, Santa Clara County Office of Education, 70 West Hedding Street, Santa Clara, California 95110. (408) 299-2131

SANTA PAULA: Santa Paula School District

Santa Paula Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-169 Approximate grant: $71,500

Description: A curriculum, stressing the authentic presentation of Mexican American culture, will be designed with the help of local artists and artisans. Faculty members will be given inservice training in activities and materials relevant to language development, with a special emphasis on early childhood education. The diagnosis and prescription process will be improved through inservice training for staff and through the employment of three full time specialists. A community liaison specialist will design and develop strategies for involving parents and the community in school activities.

Students served: 1,200, Grade Preschool

Counties served: Ventura

Further information: Leonard Heid, Project Director, P. O. Box 710, Santa Paula, California 93060. (805) 525-2182

***STOCKTON:** Stockton Unified School District

A Demonstration Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-282 Approximate grant: $150,500

Description: Individualized bilingual instruction will be provided in two elementary schools, using the Ott program materials for teaching science and social science concepts as the core of the curriculum. Ongoing inservice training will be conducted by an expert on the Ott materials and strategies. Parents will participate in an organized task force whose members will be paid to prepare materials, disseminate information, and assist the project staff. Parents also will participate informally in classroom activities.

Students served: 695, Grades Preschool-3

Counties served: San Joaquin

Further information: Richard Valenzuela, Project Director, 701 North Madison Street, Stockton, California 95202. (209) 466-3911

UKIAH: Ukiah Unified School District

Ukiah Indian, Mexican American Bilingual-Bicultural Program

Languages: Pomo (American-Indian dialect), Spanish, English OE 97-178 Approximate grant: $63,000

Description: An experimental bilingual-bicultural curriculum for elementary school American Indian and Mexican American children will be developed and tested in a rural school district. Instruction in Indian and Mexican art and culture and heritage will be included in the curriculum, in addition to standard subjects; the standard curriculum will also be modified to make it more relevant to the different cultures, habits and behavior patterns of the children. Mexican American children will receive instruction both in Spanish and in English, Indian children will be taught one of the basic Pomo dialects, and other participating children will have the choice of learning either language. Individualized instruction and cross-age teaching will be used in the program. Mexican American and Indian parents will be trained to serve as program aides. They will then help identify the problems and educational needs of the children so that appropriate corrective measures can be implemented; they will also contact other parents to encourage them to participate in adult education classes and other available activities.

Students served: 35, Grades K-6

Area served: Ukiah Unified School District

Further information: José de la Peña, Co-Project Director, 199 N. Highland Street, Ukiah, California 95482. (707) 462-8186

Colorado

DENVER: Denver Public Schools

Primary Bilingual Education

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-108 Approximate grant: $101,500

Description: Central city Spanish-speaking kindergarten children in six schools will participate in a pilot program which will later be extended to include Grades 1-6. Two itinerant teachers, working with the team of regular teachers, will develop the children's speaking and listening skills in both Spanish and English. Inservice training will be provided to prepare other teachers to teach the Spanish language to young children. Appropriate instructional materials will be purchased for the program. Parents of the children will participate in a program advisory committee.

Students served: 80, Kindergarten

Area served: Denver Public Schools

Further information: Robert W. Hirsch, Project Director, 2320 W. Fourth Avenue, Denver, Colorado 80204. (303) 744-3601

Connecticut

NEW HAVEN: New Haven Board of Education

Bilingual Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-204 Approximate grant: $75,000

Description: A bilingual program will be initiated to enable Spanish-speaking children to gain mastery of oral and written English while retaining, increasing, and perfecting their knowledge of their own language and culture. Four teachers and two aides will work with children in Grades kindergarten to one during the morning hours, teaching oral Spanish to all students and oral English and Spanish reading and writing to selected Spanish-speaking children. In the afternoon, the teachers will staff a bilingual center where oral Spanish, Spanish reading and writing, oral English, English reading and writing, and social studies and math in Spanish will be offered to non-English-speaking students in Grades two to six. Inservice training will be provided for project teachers and will include the teaching of pilot classes of children not otherwise involved in the project. Parental involvement will be encouraged through home visitations by staff members, and through services such as adult basic education courses, tutoring, and informal instruction and counseling.

Students served: 80 to 100, Grades K-6

Counties served: New Haven

Further information: Robert Serafino, Woolsey school, 2 Woolsey Street, New Haven, Connecticut 06510. (203) 562-0151

Florida

NAPLES: Collier County Board of Public Instruction

Collier County Bilingual Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-18 Approximate grant: $55,000

Description: Spanish-speaking children from migrant families will participate in an educational program designed to meet their special needs. Bilingual instruction will be available to one group of these children in Grades one and two at two elementary schools, while a similar group of children serving as control group will receive instruction completely in English. Children in the experimental group will be taught both languages, and both languages will be used to teach the subject areas of the curriculum. A team composed of one bilingual teacher, one monolingual teacher, and one teacher aide will work with each class at the two schools. Teachers also will visit the homes of the children to establish good home-school relations.

Students served: 240, Grades 1-2

Counties served: Collier

Further information: F. Pezzullo, Project Director, Federal Programs-Carver Annex, 1001 Third Avenue North, Naples, Florida 33940. (813) 649-8151

Hawaii

HONOLULU: Hawaii Department of Education

Hawaii Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Japanese, English OE 97-70 Approximate grant: $53,800

Description: Japanese high school students will develop greater competence in oral and written English and Japanese in a program which will also emphasize greater cross-cultural understanding and appreciation through a social studies course taught in English and Japanese. Texts and audiovisual materials will be developed to supplement the limited textbooks, references and periodicals that exist in this area. The students' parents will have the opportunity of participating in quarterly sessions of seminars, symposiums, panel discussions, and presentations in English and Japanese designed to give the parents a knowledge and appreciation of the values, attitudes and traditions of Western culture and to inform and discuss with them progress in the bilingual high school program.

Students served: 80, Grades 7-12

Counties served: Honolulu

Further information: Barbara Kim, Project Director, P. O. Box 2360, Honolulu, Hawaii 96804. 548-2811

Illinois

***CHICAGO:** Chicago Board of Education

Area Bilingual Centers

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-288 Approximate grant: $154,000

Description: Two bilingual education centers will be operated to improve the performance of Spanish-speaking children in both their own language and in the English language. One of the centers will provide a complete bilingual program for Grades one to eight; the other will provide an ungraded continuous development bilingual program for levels three to eight. In both centers, instruction will be conducted in Spanish and English with concurrent emphasis on Hispanic and American history and culture so that students may gain skill in a second language without losing their appreciation and respect for their native language. Expanded tutorial system, utilizing students recommended for their academic achievement, will be initiated to provide more individual attention. Inservice training at each center will concentrate on demonstrations of new materials, methods, and approaches and on the development of evaluation instruments.

Students served: 800, Grades 1-8

Counties served: Cook

Further information: Edwin Cudecki, Project Director, 228 North LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois 60601. (312) 641-0920

Massachusetts

BOSTON: Boston School Department

Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-274 Approximate grant: $108,000

Description: Two classes of Spanish-speaking children, ages six to eight, will receive instruction in English language skills, reading skills in both languages, and content areas in both languages. Two classes of newly arrived Puerto Rican children, ages nine to twelve, with little or no English language ability, will participate in an oral-aural English as a second language program and will be instructed largely in Spanish in the content areas. Two classes of newly arrived Puerto Rican children, ages thirteen to sixteen, with little or no English language ability, will participate in an intensive English as a second language program which will emphasize understanding and speaking, and will be instructed in Spanish in the content areas. Classes will be conducted by a bilingual teacher, a Puerto Rican parent aide, and volunteers. Other components will include a health program, field trips, cultural activities, a drop-in-center to provide counseling, tutorial, cultural, and vocational information and activities for young men and women of the area, and training in Spanish for English-speaking teachers.

Students served: 325, Grades 1-12

Counties served: Suffolk

Further information: Martha J. Shanley, Project Director, 120 Boylston Street, Room 521, Boston, Massachusetts 02116. (617) 426-5552

SPRINGFIELD: Springfield Public Schools

Carew Street Bilingual Education Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-273 Approximate grant: $80,000

Description: A bilingual program will be conducted for inner-city Puerto Rican children in Grades kindergarten to six in a socially integrated neighborhood school. All children will receive language instruction in Spanish and in English. Instruction in the content areas will be given to each child in a language suitable as a medium of communication. The entire staff will participate in a two-week preservice workshop, as well as in a continuous inservice program under the direction of the project supervisor. Training will differ depending on the various teaching specializations within the school. Parents will have the opportunity of participating in adult education courses, and paraprofessionals will visit the homes to work with the parents and preschool children.

Students served: 297, Grades K-6

Counties served: Hampden

Further information: John J. Sullivan, Project Director, 195 State Street, Springfield, Massachusetts 01103. (413) 733-2132

Michigan

LANSING: Lansing School District

Lansing Bilingual Program–Junior High

Description: Spanish language arts materials will be developed for junior high school students in an urban area. These materials will enable students to maintain and develop language skills in standard Spanish, especially reading and writing, and to understand their heritage through a study of early American cultures and their subsequent determination of Hispano American presence and influence in the United States. One teaching team for each of the two schools involved will conduct the program. Each team will consist of an English teacher, a bilingual teacher who will teach the Hispano American language and culture course, and a social studies teacher who will teach groups small enough to allow greater concentration in aiding those students who have varying degrees of ability in the use of English and Spanish.

Students served: 120, Grades 7-12

Counties served: Ingham

Further information: Charles A. Baldwin, Project Director, 3426 South Cedar Street, Lansing, Michigan 48910. (517) 393-3450

PONTIAC: School District of the City of Pontiac

Itinerant Bilingual Teaching Teams

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-50 Approximate grant: $91,000

Description: Non-English-speaking students and bilingual students with severe language handicaps will be given individual attention and instruction to aid them in overcoming their language problems. A team composed of one bilingual teacher and two bilingual aides will be assigned to each group of fifty students and will provide individual and small group tutoring, diagnosis of the problems which affect the student's achievement, compensatory programs utilizing school and community resources, and follow-up activities. Team teachers and aides will also conduct inservice training for classroom teachers who are working with language handicapped students and will assist in the development of elementary school social studies units incorporating Spanish American cultural and historical materials and Spanish language materials.

Students served: 100, Grades K-12

Counties served: Oakland

Further information: B. C. VanKoughnett, Project Director, 9 Victory Court, Pontiac, Michigan 48058. (313) 338-9151

Nebraska

SCOTTSBLUFF: Educational Service Unit No. 18

Panhandle Educational Program for Bilingual Literacy

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-261 Approximate grant: $59,000

Description: English and Spanish oral language program will be instituted at the kindergarten level for children who speak nonstandard Spanish and for children with limited English-speaking ability. Inservice training programs for teachers and teacher aides will focus upon awareness and understanding of cultural differences. Teacher aides will be recruited from the bilingual community and will serve as school-community liaison personnel in addition to their classroom duties.

Students served: 344, Grade K

Counties served: Scottsbluff

Further information: Udell L. Hughes, Administrator, Educational Service Unit No. 18, 1721 Broadway, Scottsbluff, Nebraska 69361. (308) 635-3696

New Hampshire

WILTON: Supervisory Union No. 63

Bilingualism in an Open-School Educational Program

Languages: French, English OE 97-228 Approximate grant: $70,00

Description: The entire staff, already bilingual, of the Greenville primary school will be involved in restructuring the curriculum and developing materials to teach English as a second language to Franco American children from three small New Hampshire towns. This pilot project will serve only Greenville children as a model program the first year, but will subsequently be expanded into two other primary schools and the regional school for Grades five through twelve. Social interaction between French and Anglo parents and a greater involvement of Anglo parents will be sought through information meetings and using parents as aides. French Canadian history and American History will be introduced simultaneously with an emphasis on their similarities and involve field trips and a variety of visual aids. Teachers will be expected to provide a flexible classroom atmosphere. Sensitivity training and inservice opportunities focusing on the culture of the community will be provided for the instructional staff.

Students served: 149, Grades 1-3

Counties served: Hillsborough

Further information: Robert C. Ilbby, Superintendent of Schools, Main Street, Wilton, New Hampshire 03086. (603) 654-4651

New Jersey

VINELAND: City of Vineland School District

New Jersey Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-37 Approximate grant: $275,000

Description: Ten demonstration bilingual and bicultural first grade classes will be established in strategic areas throughout the State. Preservice and inservice training courses will be developed for professional and paraprofessional personnel and will emphasize planning, organization and evaluation of bilingual programs; methods and materials for instruction; and areas for bicultural study such as history and art. School and community coordinators, many of them residents of the target areas, will supplement the services offered in the classroom.

Students served: 791, Grade 1

Counties served: Cumberland

Further information: Anthony A. Catrambone, City of Vineland School District, 106 Landis Avenue, Vineland, New Jersey 08630. (201) 432-6000

New Mexico

ALBUQUERQUE: Albuquerque Public Schools

Albuquerque Bicultural-Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-29 Approximate grant: $141,500

Description: Kindergarten and first grade children in two inner-city elementary schools will be taught selected parts of the curriculum solely in one language and other courses in the second language, with modifications of the program as the children progress. Initially, children will be assigned and taught in three groups—primarily Spanish-speaking, primarily English-speaking, and primarily nonlingual, the last group often being composed of children who are primarily Spanish-speaking but who adopt a non-communicative demeanor. Teachers and paraprofessionals will participate in preservice, inservice, and postservice training. Existing bilingual instructional materials will be adapted and new materials will be developed for the program. Adult education programs and programs about the bilingual project will be held; community members will be represented on a Bilingual Advisory Committee; and, a counselor will work to establish good relations between the school and the home, and will provide parents with information about community services.

Students served: 270, Grades K-1

Counties served: Bernalillo

Further information: Carlos Saavedra, Project Director, P. O. Box 1927, Albuquerque, New Mexico 87103. (505) 247-9136

ARTESIA: Artesia Public Schools

Southeastern New Mexico Bilingual Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-28 Approximate grant: $101,500

Description: An experimental learning laboratory, composed of six first grade classrooms in three different urban schools which have a high concentration of Spanish-speaking children, will be developed to test new bilingual instructional techniques and materials. English-speaking children will participate in the program to develop their proficiency in Spanish and English and to enhance interpersonal relationships between the two groups of children. Both English-speaking and Spanish-speaking parents will be involved in the program in an advisory capacity; parents will contribute local adaptations to materials development, assume program information dissemination responsibilities, and provide leadership in coordinating school-community bicultural activities. A team of one bilingual and one monolingual teacher will conduct each of the classes, and inservice training will be provided for them and for 20 paraprofessionals to prepare them for work as instructional aides.

Students served: 110, Grade 1

Counties served: Eddy

Further information: Arthur J. Bartley, Project Director, Educational Services Center, Artesia Public Schools, 1106 West Quay, Artesia, New Mexico 88210. (505) 746-9193

ESPAÑOLA: Española Municipal Schools

Española Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-99 Approximate grant: $26,500

Description: A demonstration class of first graders will be formed with about twelve percent of the children from Spanish-speaking backgrounds. Other first grade classes in the school will be used as control groups. The students' communications skills in the English language will be improved through the use of a nationally recognized program in the teaching of English as a second language and the teaching of the basic skills (understanding, speaking, reading, and writing). A social studies curriculum will be taught in Spanish to gaurantee development in concepts and skills related to society as well as social interaction. History and culture associated with the Spanish language will be included in the curriculum. Instruction in Spanish will also be provided to give the students basic literacy skills in their mother tongue. Parental involvement on the project committee will be expanded.

Students served: 90, Grades Preschool-6

Counties served: Río Arriba

Further information: Ray Rodríguez, P. O. Box 249, Española, New Mexico 87532. (505) 754-2251

GRANTS: Grants Municipal Schools

Bilingual-Bicultural Education Program

Languages: American Indian, Spanish, English OE 97-22 Approximate grant: $36,500

Description: Five languages–Acoma, Laguna, Navajo, Spanish, and English–will be involved in bilingual, bicultural program for six elementary school units in a rural area with a high concentration of Spanish-speaking and American Indian children. Each of the ten first grade target classrooms will be taught by a bilingual teacher and a bilingual teacher aide. Children will be divided into groups according to the languages they speak and their fluency in those languages. Children who are functional in limited English and limited Spanish will receive reading readiness, language and cultural instruction in both languages. English will be taught as a second language to children who are functional in Spanish, with a gradual transference of subject matter instruction to English. Children who are functional in English will be taught Spanish as a second language, so that both languages may become a part of the instructional program. Indian aides will assist Indian teachers in teaching English as a second language to those children who are functional in the Indian languages involved in the program. In the Indian classrooms, some instruction and story telling will be done in the appropriate Indian language. Emphasis in all groups will be on using the child's native language to help him understand concepts in the nonfamiliar language. Inservice training will be provided for teachers and aides. Assistance in conducting the program will be provided by the program advisory committee, which includes parents representing each of the schools involved.

Students served: 220, Grade 1

Counties served: Valencia

Further information: H. D. Overby, Project Director, Grants Municipal Schools, P. O. Box 8, Grants, New Mexico 87020. (505) 287-2958

***LAS CRUCES:** Las Cruces School District No. 2

Las Cruces Elementary School Bilingual Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-232 Approximate grant: $65,000

Description: A dual language instructional program utilizing a nongraded curriculum, instructional teacher aides, a two hundred day school calendar, intensive staff inservice training, and an experimental language program in which the achievement of students taught in three different manners–instruction in both Spanish and English, instruction in English only using linguistic patterning techniques to teach English as a second language, and traditional instruction–is being compared and will be expanded from kindergarten to three program to a kindergarten to six pilot project. A team teaching approach utilizing bilingual aides will be introduced into the school district.

Students served: 900, Grades K-6

Counties served: Doña Ana

Further information: J. K. Southard, Project Director, 301 West Amador, Las Cruces, New Mexico 88001. (505) 524-2894

New York

***BRONX:** New York City Board of Education

The Bilingual School (P. S. 25, Bronx)

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-312 Approximate grant: $230,000

Description: The Bilingual School presently offers an instructional program in both English and Spanish to its entire student population, including the 15 percent who are native speakers of English and want to learn Spanish. Equal proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing both languages is sought. Founded last year, the school now seeks to expand its services and the quality of its program through: inservice training of teachers, development of curriculum materials specially designed for bilingual education, establishment of an instructional materials center and a bilingual school library, initiation of adult education programs for parents of students, a summer program, reduction of teacher-pupil ratio, addition of administrative and clerical personnel, and the exchange and dissemination of information with other bilingual programs.

Students served: 525, Grades 1-6

Counties served: Kings

Further information: Hernán LaFontaine, P. S. 25, 811 East 149 Street, Bronx, New York 10455. (212) 665-9686

NEW YORK: Two Bridges Model School

Building Bilingual Bridges

Languages: Chinese, Spanish, English OE 97-7 Approximate grant: $139,000

Description: Providing bilingual education in an integrated classroom setting which emphasizes individualized instruction rather than segregating children by language is the aim of an inner-city program where forty-five percent of the target group children are Chinese and thirty-three percent are Puerto Rican. The program will open with two classes each of pre-kindergarten and kindergarten children and children in Grades one and two, and will eventually be expanded to all elementary grade levels. Chinese American children in the pre-kindergarten and kindergarten classes will receive curricular instruction in Chinese and in English, while the Puerto Rican children will receive curricular instruction in Spanish and in English. Each group will also receive intensive instruction in oral English and reading readiness activities. English-speaking children will have the opportunity to participate in the non-English instruction of the other children. A similar format will be followed in Grades one and two where the English component will consist of oral language, reading readiness and beginning reading, and the native language component will consist of an IPI (Individually Prescribed Instruction) mathematics program. Subject matter instruction in the two languages will be conducted by bilingual teachers. Weekly inservice meetings will be held with the project staff, and periodic progress discussions will be held with the teacher aides and with the children's parents.

Students served: 270, Grades Preschool-2

Counties served: Kings

Further information: Daniel Friedman, Unit Administrator, 217 Park Row, New York, New York 10038. (212) 962-1410

ROCHESTER: City School District of Rochester

Spanish English Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-201 Approximate grant: $169,000

Description: Four-year-olds will be taught half time in Spanish by a native speaker of that language and helf time by a native speaker of English. Each teacher will also be fluent in the other's language to facilitate cooperative planning. No more than one-fourth of the class of twenty pupils will be native speakers of English. Similar provisions will be made for kindergarten and first grade children. Students in grades seven to ten may learn mathematics, social studies, and science in Spanish while enrolled in an intensive program to study English as a second language. A Spanish-speaking community-school aide will be assigned for each level—preschool, elementary, and secondary. A two-week orientation and planning session will be conducted for all bilingual education personnel. Thus, it is planned that Spanish-speaking children will develop competence in

English, improve their compentence in Spanish and their knowledge of the history and culture associated with it, and receive better educational opportunities. A limited number of monolingual English-speaking children will also develop competence in Spanish and closer parent-school communication will be established.

Students served: 262, Preschool - 1; 7 - 10

Counties served: Monroe

Further information: Eleanor H. Burgess, 18 Fitzhugh Street South, Rochester, New York 14614. (716) 454-5360

Ohio

CLEVELAND: Cleveland Public Schools

Bilingual Instruction – Junior High

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-181 Approximate grant: $69,000

Description: Bilingual instruction in Spanish and in social studies will be offered to Spanish-speaking and monolingual English-speaking seventh grade students at two centers in Cleveland's near West Side. Two classes will be organized at each center, in the effort to improve the English-speaking ability of the Spanish-speaking children, to eliminate "the language barrier," and to preserve and improve the self-image of all students by demonstrating respect for their language and culture. Nonpublic school students will also be served by supportive services provided to Spanish-speaking students by a bilingual conselor-advisor and a social worker and psychologist, both also bilingual.

Students served: 177, Grade 7

Counties served: Cuyahoga

Further information: Paul W. Briggs, Superintendent of Schools, 1380 East Sixth Street, Cleveland, Ohio 44114. (216) 696-2929

Oklahoma

TAHLEQUAH: Cherokee County Superintendent of Schools

Cherokee Bilingual Education

Languages: Cherokee, English OE 97-197 Approximate grant: $98,500

Description: Over a five-year period, bilinugal instruction will be introduced into four eastern Oklahoma elementary schools as model centers. Three groups will be served as follows: (1) The Cherokee child entering elementary school without understanding of English will be instructed in Cherokee by a teaching team of a certified teacher and a bilingual Cherokee aide: (2) Prospective teachers attending or planning to attend Northeastern State College and bilingual members of the community who have never been motivated to attend college will be given an opporutnity to improve their knowledge of Cherokee through college level classes as they meet requirements for teaching certification. Currently employed elementary teachers may also participate; (3) Parents or guardians of Cherokee children will be given oportunity to learn English as a supplement to their native tongue. Assistance from a project home-school coordinator will bring the parent group closer to the school. The project anticipates a high degree of cooperation with existing Head Start programs, foster grandparent programs, and special training efforts under the Education Professions Development Act.

Students served: 268, Grade K

Counties served: Cherokee

Further information: J. Ross Underwood, Northeastern State College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma 74464. (918) 456-2531

Pennsylvania

PHILADELPHIA: The School District of Philadelphia

Let's Be Amigos

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-89 Approximate grant: $200,000

Description: A comprehensive bilingual, bicultural program, including a bilingual model school, will be established. The model school will include pre-kindergarten, kindergarten, and first grade during its first year of operation and will add grade levels as the program continues. In the middle and upper grades, Spanish-speaking students who are underachievers will be identified, and individually prescribed instructional programs will be developed for them. These programs will include instruction in Spanish and English in mathematics, science, social studies, and the two languages. Curricula for these subjects and for Puerto Rican history and culture will be developed by teams of writers during the summer and throughout the school year. Staff development programs will be conducted to identify, certify and employ Spanish-speaking teachers in the community; to prepare Spanish-speaking people to serve as program aides, coordinators, and administrators; and to prepare all staff members for work in the program.

Students served: 810, Grades Preschool-12

Counties served: Philadelphia

Further information: Eleanor L. Sandstrom, Project Director, Administration Building, Room 305, Parkway at 21st Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19103. (215) 448-3334

Rhode Island

PROVIDENCE: Providence School Department

Providence's Program for Bilingual Education

Languages: Portuguese, English OE 97-38 Approximate grant: $110,000

Description: An equal number of first and second grade Portuguese-speaking children and monolingual English-speaking children will participate in a program designed to make all the children bilingual. Two mixed classes of children at each grade level will be taught by a native English-speaking teacher, a native Portuguese-speaking teacher and bilingual aides. The children will be grouped for part of the day according to language and will be taught academic subjects in the language most familiar to them; they will also be given instruction in speaking, reading and writing the second language. For the rest of the school day, they will be taught in mixed groups; these activities will initially include physical education and art, and will later be expanded to include teaching each child the same subject matter in both languages. Project personnel will participate in preservice and inservice training which will include the development of appropriate instructional materials. Biculturalism will also be emphasized in the program, and activities will be developed for parents and other members of the community.

Students served: 100, Grades 1-2

Area served: Providence

Further information: Catherine M. Casserly, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Federal Programs, 350 Elmgrove Avenue, Providence, Rhode Island 02906. (401) 272-5051

Texas

ABERNATHY: Abernathy Independent School District

Helping Advance Bilingual Learning in Abernathy

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-34 Approximate grant: $51,500

Description: Closed circuit television will be used to teach Mexican American and Anglo American kindergarten children in a bilingual program designed to develop students who are equally fluent in the English or Spanish language and who are at ease with both cultures. Video-taped programs will be developed with a dual audio track so that both English and Spanish narration or dialogue can be used with the same presentation. Television also will be used to build the self-esteem of the Mexican American children, who could, for example, prepare programs to be shown to Anglo American classes. It will also be used to teach the history and culture of Mexican American and other areas of the curriculum, and as one means of evaluating the program. Emphasis in the program will be placed on the use of the Spanish language as a means of communication between teacher and student. Spanish will also be used in initial instruction and conceptualization. Preservice and inservice training will be provided for the teachers and aides involved in the program. Materials and procedures will be examined for revision, and new materials will be developed where necessary. Bimonthly meetings with groups of parents will be held to evaluate program progress and to discuss future plans and objectives.

Students served: 120, Grade K

Counties served: Hale, Lubbock

Further information: Gid B. Adkisson, Jr., Project Director, Drawer E, Abernathy, Texas 79311. (806) 298-2038

AMARILLO: PESO Education Service Center

PESO Bilingual Language Development Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-86 Approximate grant: $101,500

Description: Twelve first grade classes with high concentrations of Mexican American children who have limited English-speaking ability will be instructed by six specially trained bilingual teachers and twelve cooperating (regular classroom) teachers through a team approach. Preservice training and inservice workshops are designed to develop a corps of six well-trained teachers who can instruct primary grade children in both Spanish and English and to provide a corps of twelve cooperating teachers with increased skills for working with children whose major language is Spanish. Parent meetings, teacher aide opportunities, and home visits by both bilingual and cooperating teachers will be structured to increase parental awareness of the values of a formal education and of ways which they may support their children's chances for success in school.

Students served: 427, Grade 1

Counties served: Potter

Further information: Huelyn W. Laycock, 1601 South Cleveland, Amarillo, Texas 79102. (806) 372-8721

AUSTIN: Education Service Center, Region XIII

Region XIII Bilingual Education Program

Language: Spanish, English OE 97-94 Approximate grant: $101,250

Description: Five pilot and two control first grade classes on three elementary campuses will receive bilingual instruction during the first year. Instructional programs will be organized and implemented, and a system will be developed to identify, utilize, and evaluate a broad range of materials to support the model program. A program will also be developed to make parents aware of the educational and cultural needs of Mexican American children and adults. The project director, materials specialist, and parental coordinator will devote fifty to seventy-five percent of their time to activities in the three schools, but also will be available to provide technical assistance to other schools in the fifteen counties of the region.

Students served: 210, Grade 1

Counties served: Travis

Further information: Royce King, 861 East 53rd Street, Austin, Texas 78751. (512) 454-2765

***DEL RIO: Del Rio Independent School District**

Del Rio Bilingual Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-85 Approximate grant: $51,500

Description: The educational needs of a bilingual-bicultural community will be served through a bilingual education program which recognizes that children learn best when their first school experiences are in their native language. The program will seek to provide instruction in two languages, increased understanding and appreciation of cultures, improved human relationships, opportunities through education for economic upgrading, conservation of language resources in the national interest, and a school environment conducive to the psychological well being of the individual. It is expected that bilingualism will be attained by these children, now in kindergarten through fourth grade, by completion of their sixth year in school. Project components provide for staff development through organized preservice and inservice training, appropriate library materials and other instructional aids, parent involvement in planning and program development, continuing evaluation, and the dissemination of pertinent information.

Students served: 726, Grades K-4

Counties served: Val Verde

Further information: R. J. Waddell, P. O. Drawer 1229, Del Rio, Texas 78840. (512) 775-7531

DEL RIO: San Felipe Independent School District
San Felipe Educational Bilingual Program
Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-12 Approximate grant: $51,500
Description: All facets of the curriculum eventually will be taught in both Spanish and English in four elementary schools where 98 percent of the population is Mexican American. During the first year, the program will involve only the first grade, with a new grade being added each succeeding year. In addition to language arts and mathematics, the children will be instructed in both Anglo American and Mexican American history and culture. Health and physical education and recreational activities also will be included in the program. The program will be explained to the parents in adult education classes conducted by the school district, and teachers and other staff members will visit the homes of the children. A bilingual teacher will be in charge of each first grade, and inservice training for the teachers will be provided during the summer.
Students served: 450, Grades K-1
Area served: San Felipe Independent School District
Further information: J. B. Peña, Project Director, P. O. Box 1547, Del Rio, Texas 78840 (512) 775-7737

EDINBURG: Region One Education Service Center
Region One Bilingual Project
Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-133 Approximate grant: $151,500
Description: The development of Spanish language instructional materials in the areas of reading and mathematics will be emphasized. These materials will include a programmed self-instruction course in reading and writing utilizing audiovisual equipment, a teacher-directed reading program, and individually prescribed mathematics instruction.
Students served: 800, Grades K-6
Area served: Hidalgo
Further information: A. R. Ramírez, Project Director, 113 S. 10th, Edinburg, Texas 78539. (512) 383-5614

FORT WORTH: Fort Worth Independent School District
Programa En Dos Lenguas
Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-110 Approximate grant: $201,500
Description: Readiness activities and extensive concurrent oral language development in Spanish and English will be the core of the kindergarten phase of an instructional program for Mexican and Anglo American children in seven elementary schools in an inner-city area. Children in the first grade will also participate in bilingual instruction, and the program will later be extended to include Grades 2-6. Bilingual teachers, bilingual teacher aides, and monolingual English-speaking teachers will work together to conduct the program. Activities designed to encourage parent participation will include: parent visits to the classrooms, discussions on the bilingual program, use of

volunteer parent aides in the classroom, establishment of a parent council to serve as liaison between home and school, and development of adult education courses and monthly programs for the entire family.

Students served: 1,007, Grades K-1

Area served: Fort Worth Independent School District

Further information: Tom W. Porter, Project Director, 3210 W. Lancaster Street, Fort Worth, Texas 76107. (817) 336-0743

HOUSTON: Houston Independent School District

Houston Independent School District Bilingual Educational Program

Description: Kindergarten, first and second grade children in four elementary schools will be taught in Spanish half to three-fourths of their school day and in English the rest of the day, by bilingual teachers and aides. Teachers, administrators, and aides will participate in a summer human relations workshop guided by the philosphy that every student is a gifted student. Teams of parents, teachers, and secondary students will guide and evaluate each project activity. In the junior high school, a bilingual teacher will conduct a course in Texas History and Government in Spanish. A bilingual speech and drama course will be developed for the ninth grade. Art and music courses at the secondary level will incorporate the works of Mexican artists, and Mexican holiday festivals and other special activities will be utilized. An honors program in Spanish will be available to qualified second year high school students. Secondary school teachers will participate in workshops and seminars for inservice training.

Students served: 585, Grades K-2 and 7-12

Counties served: Harris

Further information: Raul Munoz, Jr., Project Director, 3202 Weslayan Road, Houston, Texas 77027. (713) 621-7914

***LA JOYA:** La Joya Independent School District

Hacia Nuevos Horizontes

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-104 Approximate grant: $51,500

Description: Community involvement and improvement of the self-images of Spanish-speaking kindergarten and elementary school children are the emphases of a bilingual program in a rural area which is designed to enable both Mexican American and Anglo American children to become literate in two languages. Parents and other members of the community will participate in orientation workshops as the program begins, and day-long mid-program workshops will be held to discuss progress and the parents' idea about the program. Mothers of the children in the program will be hired as teacher aides and will then be prepared to teach their younger children at home. Preservice and inservice workshops will be held to prepare the teachers to work with the children in developing their self-images. Activities for the children which are designed to enhance their self-images will include role playing and identification with heroes through fictional stories, true stories of accomplished community members, field trips and musical activities.

Students served: 861, Grades K-3

Area served: La Joya Independent School District

Further information: Arturo Medina, Superintendent of School, P. O. Box 120, La Joya, Texas 78560. (512) 585-1232

***LAREDO:** Laredo Independent School District

Bilingualism for the Conceptualization of Learning

Description: The established elementary school curriculum will be modified to permit the utilization of both English and Spanish instruction in the classroom. Emphasis will be placed upon developing original instructional materials based on local sources of folklore, history, art, and music. Preservice and inservice training in such areas as sensitivity training, team-teaching techniques, and comparative linguistics will also be offered.

Students served: 420, Grades 1-6

Area served: Laredo Independent School District

Further information: Evangeline Ornes, Project Director, 1618 Houston, Laredo, Texas 78040. (512) 722-6366

***LAREDO:** United Consolidated Independent School District

United Bilingual Education Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-235 Approximate grant: $51,500

Description: English and Spanish will be used concurrently, particularly in the first three grades and tapering off in the later elementary school grades. The teaching time alloted to instruction in each language will be determined by the classroom teacher with the assistance of the school principal and the project director. A simple linguistic approach and a strong use of phonics will be emphasized. Preservice and inservice training will be provided, curriculum materials will be developed, and evaluation instruments will be designed for project use.

Students served: 650, Grades K-6

Counties served: Webb

Further information: Dolores A. Earles, Project Director, P. O. Box 826, Laredo, Texas 78040. (512) 723-9923

LUBBOCK: Lubbock Independent School District

A Bilingual Elementary Education Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-219 Approximate grant: $151,500

Description: A preschool bilingual program will be extended upward into the higher grades as preservice and inservice programs develop an adequate instructional staff. As communications skills of children are improved, it is expected that the level of academic achievement will be raised and the dropout rate will decrease. Program components include administration, materials and techniques of instruction, staff development, evaluation, dissemination, and parent involvement with an emphasis on language and culture. The bilingual staff, in addition to providing the child with words and structures to talk in two languages, will offer enriching experiences for learning by doing, exploring, discovering, and creating. Observations and ancedotal records will be made periodically by teachers, the specialist in bilingual education, and consultants knowledgeable in early childhood development and bilingual education. Checklists, the tape recorder, vocabulary tests, and other evaluative instruments will provide feedback and suggestions for program change. Program information will be disseminated through a variety of media and with the assistance of the regional education service center.

Students served: 100, Grade K

Counties served: Lubbock

Further information: Nat Williams, Superintendent of Schools, 1715 – 26th Street, Lubbock, Texas 79411. (806) 747-2641

***MCALLEN:** McAllen Independent School District

McAllen Bilingual Social Science Program

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-114 Approximate grant: $55,900

Discription: Spanish-speaking elementary school children in an urban area will learn about both the Anglo American and the Spanish American cultures in a program which is also designed to develop their communication skills in both languages. Children will first hear, pronounce and become familiar with the language patterns of the Spanish and English they encounter in school, home and community; they will then develop reading and writing skills in both languages. Teachers will be trained to use the newer methods, materials and techniques of language learning. Through workshops, demonstrations and consultant services, teachers will learn how to develop, produce, use and evaluate audiovisual and instructional materials in meeting the needs of the children. Emphasis will be on the development of materials and methods for one grade each year; subsequently, kindergarten classes will be added to the program, in addition to upper grades and other schools. An advisory board for community involvement and dissemination has been established for the program; included on the board are parents of participating children and other community members.

Students served: 420, Grades 1-3

Area served: McAllen Independent School District

Further information: Carmen Salcines, Project Director, 110 South 10th Street, McAllen, Texas 78501. (512) 686-0515

SAN ANGELO: San Angelo Independent School District

English-Spanish Environmental Experience School

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-88 Approximate grant: $177,170

Description: Six teachers and six teacher assistants, all bilingual, will use team teaching to provide for kindergarten children environmental experiences that lend opportunity for oral language development in English and Spanish and to conduct activities that teach a better understanding of both Spanish American and English American cultures. Institute opportunities and a continuing training program will be provided for the staff, who will also visit selected comparable preschool programs. A three-year course of study for the children is anticipated. Parent invovlement will include open meetings for evaluation and an exchange of ideas and an advisory committee of about fifteen parents and other concerned citizens. Teachers will develop many of their own materials. The dissemination program will be aimed at the entire bilingual population of the community. Teachers and assistants will visit each child's home at least three times a year.

Students served: 140, Grade K

Counties served: Tom Green

Further information: C. D. Henry, 100 North Magdalen Street, San Angelo, Texas 76901. (915) 655-5741

***SAN ANTONIO:** Edgewood Independent School District

Better Education Through Bilingualism

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-298 Approximate grant: $151,500

Description: Extensive preservice and inservice training and an intensive counseling program will be an important part of a bilingual program for first grade children in 16 elementary schools in an inner-city area. The children will develop skills in the usual areas taught in the first grade through use of the language or language variation with which they are most familiar. At the same time, they will also develop oral ability in the second language, and reading will be taught in the second language during the latter part of the school year. Teachers will participate in a preservice summer program which will consist of courses designed to acquaint them with linguistics and the historical background and culture of Mexican American people. An expert will then aid them in selecting, revising and adapting curriculum materials for the coming school year. During the school year, weekly inservice training sessions will be held to discuss materials to be used and effectiveness of materials already used. Bilingual teacher aides will assist the teachers, who will also be bilingual. The counseling staff will also be bilingual and will consist of two counselors, two social workers, and one psychometrist who will work directly with the students and their families, serving as liaison between home and school. They will also conduct testing and evaluation activities and will aid parents in finding community programs and agencies to help them meet their physical, mental and materials needs.

Students served: 405, Grade 1

Area served: Edgewood Independent School District

Further information: Alice Hayes, Project Director, 6548 W. Commerce Street, San Antonio, Texas 78237. (512) 433-1441

***SAN ANTONIO:** San Antonio Independent School District

Proyecto Bilingual Intercultural

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-60 Approximate grant: $201,500

Description: A multimedia learning system will be designed to help alleviate the serious shortage of materials for Spanish-speaking children in Grades kindergarten to one. The system will include filmstrips, films, audio tapes, teachers' manuals and student materials and will use Spanish as the primary medium of instruction until the child's command of English is sufficient to enable him to communicate effectively in that language. Teaching Spanish as a second language will be a second focus of the system. A junior high school curriculum development project will focus upon identifying, developing, improving, and adapting materials and techniques to assist Spanish-speaking children in becoming independent learners in English and to teach sufficient Spanish to English-speakers to prepare them for instruction in Spanish. A program to train high school students as bilingual secretaries and office workers will be a third component of the project.

Students served: 1,650, Grades K-1, 6-7, 9-12

Counties served: Bexar

Further information: Josué M. González, Project Director, c/o Navarro Elementary School, 623 South Pecos Street, San Antonio, Texas 78207. (512) 227-4195

***SAN MARCOS:** San Marcos Independent School District

Bilingual Instruction for Grades 1-3

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-14 Approximate grant: $161,500

Description: A five-component program will include: (1) a curriculum development component in which curriculum materials and course outlines will be developed and evaluated; (2) a teaching improvement component in which systematic preservice and inservice training will be offered; (3) a community involvement component in which home-school-community relations will be improved; (4) an information dissemination component in which project information will be shared with other interested parties; and (5) a project coordination component in which an efficient and effective administrative structure will be developed.

Students served: 1,320, Grades 1-3

Counties served: Bexar and Hays

Further information: Bill E. Hughes, Project Director, Southwest Texas State College, 700 North LBJ Drive, San Marcos, Texas 78666. (512) 245-2158

WESLACO: Weslaco Independent School District

Project Language

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-53 Approximate grant: $51,500

Description: Eight first grade classes—six composed of Mexican American children and two composed of native English-speakers—will be divided into groups of two which will be taught by teams of one English-speaking teacher, one Spanish-speaking teacher, and one aide. Each child will receive subject area instruction in his native language as well as instruction in the second language. Literature, fine arts, and physical education and recreation will be conducted bilingually. Preservice and inservice training will emphasize the philosophy underlying bilingual education, the development of curriculum, and continuous project evaluation.

Students served: 200, Grade 1

Counties served: Hidalgo

Further information: Partricia Wallace, Project Director, P. O. Box 266, Weslaco, Texas 78596. (512) 968-4595

***ZAPATA:** Zapata Independent School District

Catch Up

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-6 Approximate grant: $47,500

Description: Spanish-speaking children in kindergarten and Grades one and two in two elementary schools will participate in a bilingual educational program designed to develop pride in their heritage, competency in Spanish, and competency in English, using the Spanish language as a bridge to ease the transition from Spanish to English. Through the program, kindergarten children will learn oral language patterns in both English and Spanish, develop reading readiness skills, learn basic mathematical concepts, develop physical skills, and participate in activities fostering social and emotional adjustment. First grade children will develop oral language skills in both languages, develop basic reading and writing skills, learn arithmetical concepts, develop their ability to think creatively through art, music and dramatization, and learn basic concepts in social studies. Second grade children will further develop oral language skills, reading skills, mathematical skills, and writing skills, develop appreciation for both cultures through creative music and art, and develop basic skills in language arts. Preservice and inservice training will be provided for the teachers and aides involved in the program. Parents will serve in the classroom as volunteers and will participate in a program advisory committee.

Students served: 309, Grades K-2

Counties served: Zapata

Further information: Valentín G. Medina, Project Director, Box 158, Zapata, Texas 78076. (512) 765-4321

Utah

BLANDING: San Juan School District

Bilingual Education Project for Navajo

Languages: Navajo, English OE 97-207 Approximate grant: $66,500

Description: Teams of two teachers each–one English-speaking and one bilingual–will work in all first and second grade classrooms. Subject matter initially will be taught in Navajo, and instruction in the history and culture of Indians, emphasizing the Navajo, will be added to the curriculum. Project teachers will participate in workshops conducted by a local university which will emphasize the development of an individualized program for each child, in which the use of English and Navajo will be determined by proficiency in each language.

Students served: 160, Grades 1-2

Counties served: San Juan

Further information: Lynn Lee, Project Director, Post Office Box 425, Blanding, Utah 84511. (801) 678-3411

MILWAUKEE: Milwaukee Board of School Directors

Milwaukee Bilingual Education Project

Languages: Spanish, English OE 97-262 Approximate grant: $45,258

Description: A bilingual readiness which will eventually enable both Spanish-speaking and English-speaking children to communicate with each other in both languages is the goal of this pilot project. At the kindergarten and early primary levels, monolingual teachers will be reassigned to permit bilingual teaching. In addition to the regualr kindergarten curriculum, a structured language development course in English and Spanish will be introduced. Secondary pupils will be offered a bilingual Hispano American Culture, Language, and History course to promote interaction, mutual understanding, and respect between Spanish-speaking and English-speaking pupils and enable newly arrived Spanish-speaking pupils to succeed in a content course while learning English. An advisory committee of parents, pupils, and community members will continue to function and, with bilingual student advisors, will help establish better channels of communication among home, school, and community.

Students served: 220, Grades K-2 and 7-12

Counties served: Milwaukee

Further information: Anthony Gradisnik, 5225 West Vliet Street, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53208. (414) 476-3670

APPENDIX W

DIRECTORY

This directory is preliminary, incomplete, and quite uneven in its coverage. It includes three sublists:

I. Persons

II. Organizations

III. Sources of teaching materials

Persons. Many but not all of those named were contacted during the course of preparation of this volume. Their areas of competence range from the broadest concern with bilingualism throughout the world to the very specific and immediate problems involved in teaching children in one classroom. Their names are used here without their permission: inclusion does not necessarily imply that they are available for consultative services. For further names see the list of present bilingual programs and programs funded for 1969-1970 (Appendix V, Part II).

Organizations. This list attempts to supplement rather than duplicate addresses readily accessible in such sources as the Modern Language Association's journal *PMLA* (annual directory issue).

Sources of teaching materials. Individual publishers and commercial suppliers have been omitted except for a very few whose names are included on some other basis (e.g., if they also provide lists from a variety of sources).

RESOURCE PERSONS

Abraham, Dr. Willard
Professor of Education
Arizona State College
Tempe, Arizona 85281

Acquino, Mr. Ness, President
Filipino Community
2970 California St.
San Francisco, Calif.

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Inst. of Languages and Linguistics
Georgetown U.
Washington, D. C. 20007
and
Exec. Sec., Teachers of English
to Speakers of Other Languages

Alcott, Mr. Hank
Northern Ariz. Supplementary Ed.
Center
U. of Northern Ariz.
Flagstaff, Arizona 86003
(Hopi and English)

Allemano, Mr. Peter, Asst. Dir.
Agency for International Dev.
Dept. of State
American Embassy
México, D. F.

Allen, Prof. Edward D.
College of Ed.
Ohio State U.
1945 North High St.
Columbus, O. 43210

Alessandro, Dr. Joseph
Chief of Party
Pennsylvania State U. Team
c/o American Embassy
Panama, Republic of Panama
(Developing Spanish-English
materials)

Anderson, Dr. George, Chrmn.
Dept. of English
U. of Hawaii
Honolulu, Hawaii 96822

Andrews, Dr. Norwood, Jr.
Prof. of Spanish and Portuguese
Vanderbilt U.
Nashville, Tenn. 37203

Angell, Dr. Frank
School of Education
U. of New Mexico
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87106

Anzaldúa, Mrs.
Prin., Primary Grades
The American School Foundation, A. C.
Calle Sur 136, No. 135
México 18, D. F.

Ashley, Mr. Marshel
Coordinator of Bilingual Schools
Austin I.S.D.
Austin, Texas 78712

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Dept. of Modern Langs.
The U. of Texas at El Paso
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Babin, Mr. Patrick
263 Maclaren St.
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Ottawa, Ont.
(Franco-American)

Babineaux, Mr. Allen M., Chrmn.
French Heritage Committee and
Member, Le Conseil pour le
Développement du Français
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Lafayette, La.

Ballesteros, Prof. David
Dept. of Modern Languages
U. of Oklahoma
Norman, Okla. 73069

Balow, Prof. Bruce
Dept. of Psychology and Special Ed.
U. of Minnesota
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(Specialist in reading)

Band, Mr. Arnold J.
Prof. of Hebrew
U. of Calif. at Los Angeles
405 Hilgard Av.
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Banks, Prof. J. Houston
George Peabody College of Teachers
Nashville, Tenn. 37203
(Consultant to AID/ROCAP & ODECA in math for Spanish texts in Central America)

Barker, Mrs. Marie Esman
Dept. of Ed.
The U. of Texas at El Paso
El Paso, Tex. 79999

Barrutia, Dr. Richard
Dept. of Spanish and Portuguese
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Irvine, Calif. 92664

Bascom, Dr. Burt
Wycliffe Bible Translators, Inc.
Box 1960
Santa Ana, Calif. 92702
(Bilingual programs in Mexico and Peru)

Battisti, Mrs. Gloria J.
13900 Shaker Blvd.
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Cleveland, O. 44120
(Member of Natl. Advisory Com. on the Ed. of Biling. Children)

Bauer, Mrs. Evelyn
Division of Ed.
Bureau of Indian Affairs
U. S. Dept. of the Interior
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Beaudoin, Dr. Robert
1008 Elm St.
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(Member of Natl. Advisory Com. on the Ed. of Biling. Children)

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Washington, D. C. 20202
(Administrator of Bilingual Education Act)

Begaye, Mr. Fleming
Chinle, Ariz.
(Pillar of the Navajo community)

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Calle Sur 136, No. 135
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Dade County Public Schools
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Director Técnico de Primaria
Nuevo Colegio Israelita I.L. Peretz
Prol. Manuel Avila Camacho No. 4
México 10, D. F.

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Window Rock, Ariz.

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Bureau of Indian Affairs
Bethel, Alaska

Bernal, Senator Joe J.
Senate Chambers, State Capitol
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Bernardo, Dr. Leo, FL Dir.
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Brooklyn, N. Y. 11201
(Planning bilingual ed.
in N. Y. schools)

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Sec., Polish Falcons of
America, Dist. IV and
Chrmn., Polish Historical Com.
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(On leave 1968-1970):
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Haile Selassie I U.
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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Victoria Subercaseaux 121
Departamento 600
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AID&ROCAP Textbook
Program)

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Yale U.
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Burns, Mr. and Mrs. Donald
Instituto Lingüístico de Verano
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(Quechua-Spanish bilingual
schools in Ayacucho)

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Unit of Technological Dev.
Pan American Union
Washington, D. C.

Carrillo, Mrs. Ida
S. W. Coop. Ed. Lab.
Albuquerque, N. M.
(First grade teacher, on
leave 1968-69 to disseminate
SWCEL ESL materials)

Carrizales, Mrs. María
Language Arts Coordinator
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Washington, D. C. 20506

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U. of Calif. at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, Calif. 90024
(Norwegian)

Chávez, Mr. Dan
U. of New Mexico
Albuquerque, N. M. 87106
(Small Schools Project)

Chew, Mr. Wellington, Ed. Coord.
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(Chinese)

Chino, Mr. Wendell
Mescalero Apache Tribe
Mescalero, N. M.

Christian, Dr. Chester C., Jr.
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El Paso, Tex. 79999

Chrobot, The Rev. Leonard F.
Academic Dean
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Orchard Lake, Mich. 48034
(Polish)

Chuck, Mr. Harry, Dist. Supt.
Hilo Lang. Dev. Project
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(ESL materials for Navajos)

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Bureau of Indian Affairs
Department of the Interior
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(Italian)

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Davison, Dr. Ned J.
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Natl. Congress of American Indians
1452 Pennsylvania
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Dende, Mr. Henry J., Ed.
Polish-American Journal
409-415 Cedar Av.
Scranton, Pa. 18505

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Colonia Nápoles
México 18, D. F.
(Psychologist)

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Le Conseil pour le Développement
du Français en Louisiane
Lafayette, La.
(Former Congressman)

Donovan, Father
St. Mary's Chinese Mission
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Desert Research Institute
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Basic Studies Branch
Div. of College Programs
Bureau of Ed. Personnel Dev.
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García, Mr. Tony, Prin.
Central Elementary School
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Commissioner for Intl.
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Washington, D. C.
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Goossen, Dr. Irvy, Linguistics
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Gardon, Dr. Bruce R., Head
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Ed. Services Div.
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Americans and bilingualism)

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Children)

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Hocking, Dr. Elton
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Holm, Mr. Wayne, Prin.
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(Navajo)

Hopkins, Dr. Tom R., Chief
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(Reading)

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Krauss, Prof. Michael
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Kurzband, Mr. Toby, Prin.
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(Chinese)

Kusielewicz, Dr. Eugene, V. Pres.
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(Polish)

Lado, Dr. Robert, Dean
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LaFontaine, Mr. Hernán, Prin.
P. S. 25 – The Bilingual School
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Lambert, Prof. Wallace E.
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Lande, Mrs. Winifred D.
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Alaska Rural School Project
U. of Alaska
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Landen, Mr. Robert, Foreign Lang. Supervisor
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Larick, Mr. James, Dir.
Dos Mundos School (preschool)
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University Park, Pa. 16802
(Franco-American)

Lee, Dr. Ernest
Highland Bilingual Program
CORDS/REF Summer Inst. of Linguistics
APO San Francisco, Calif. 96240
(Using Bahnar-Vietnamese mats. prepared by USAID)

Lemaire, Mr. Hervé B.
Wilson Jr. H. S.
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2nd Floor - Navarro Elem. Schl.
623 South Pecos
San Antonio, Tex. 78207
Josué González, Dir.

Books for the People Fund, Inc.
Pan American Union
Washington, D. C. 20006
Mrs. Marietta D. Shepard, Pres.

British Council
English-Teaching Information Centre
State House, 63 High Holborn
London W.C.1, England
B. R. Hedger, Deputy Dir.
(Has prepared "A Language Teaching Bibliography," published by Cambridge U. Press, 1968.)

Bureau of Jewish Education
72 Franklin St.
Boston, Mass. 02110

Canada Council
Humanities and Social Sciences Div.
140 Wellington St.
Ottawa, Ont.
Canada
Mr. N. F. W. Gates

Center for Applied Linguistics
(ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics)
1717 Massachusetts Av., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20036
John Lotz, Dir.
(Publishes *The Linguistic Reporter*)

Center for Curriculum Development in Audio-Visual Language Teaching
The Irvin Bldg.
Philadelphia, Pa.
Charles A. S. Heinle, Dir.

Center for Inter-American Relations
680 Park Av.
New York, N. Y. 10021

Center for Urban Education
See Regional Laboratories

Central American Regional Textbook Prog.
(Centro Regional de Libros de Textos)
Departamento de Asuntos Culturales y Educativos
Organización de Estados Centroamericanos (ODECA)
San Salvador, El Salvador
Dr. Albino Román y Vega, Secretario General

Commission on the Humanities in the Schools
P. O. Box 15212
Steiner St. Station
San Francisco, Calif. 94115
(Compiling inventory of new developments in school curriculum, teaching methods, mats., conditions, and teacher preparation.)

Committee for the Yiddish Schools
426 West 58th St.
New York, N. Y. 10019

Council on International Educational Exchange
777 United Nations Plaza
New York, N. Y. 10017

Early Childhood Bilingual Education Project
Yeshiva U.
55 Fifth Av.
New York, N. Y. 10003
Dr. Vera P. John, Dir.

East-West Center
Institute of Advanced Projects
U. of Hawaii
Honolulu, Hawaii 96822
Minoru Shinoda, Dir.

Educational Resources Information Center
See ERIC

Educational Testing Service
Rosedale Rd.
Princeton, N.J. 08540
Henry Chauncey, Pres.

English for Speakers of Other Languages Program (ESOL)
Center for Applied Linguistics
1717 Massachusetts Av., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 10036
Miss Sirarpi Ohannessian, Dir.

ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center)
(Central ERIC Headquarters)
U. S. Office of Education
Dept. of Health, Ed., and Welfare
400 Maryland Av., S. W.
Washington, D. C.
Harvey Marron, Chief

ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education
Syracuse U.
Syracuse, N. Y. 13210

ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services
U. of Mich.
Ann Arbor, Mich. 48104

ERIC Clearinghouse on the
Disadvantaged
Teachers College
Columbia U.
New York, N. Y. 10027

ERIC Clearinghouse on Early
Childhood Education
U. of Ill.
Urbana, Ill. 61801

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational
Administration
U. of Oregon
Eugene, Ore. 97403

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational
Facilities
U. of Wisc.
Madison, Wisc. 53703

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational
Media and Technology
Stanford U.
Stanford, Calif. 94305

ERIC Clearinghouse on Exceptional
Children
The Council for Exceptional Children
Washington, D. C. 20036

ERIC Clerainghouse on Higher
Education
George Washington U.
Washington, D. C. 20006

ERIC Clearinghouse on Junior
Colleges
U. of Calif. at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, Calif. 90024

ERIC Clearinghouse on Library
and Information Sciences
U. of Minn.
Minneapolis, Minn. 55404

ERIC Clearinghouse on Linguistics
Center for Applied Linguistics
1717 Massachusetts Av., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 10036
A. Hood Roberts, Dir.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading
Indiana U.
Bloomington, Ind. 47401

ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural
Education and Small Schools
New Mexico State U.
Box 3AP, Univ. Pk. Branch
Las Cruces, N. M. 88001

ERIC Clearinghouse on Science
Education
Ohio State U.
Columbus, O. 43221

ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher
Education
American Association of Colleges
for Teacher Education
Washington. D. C. 10005

ERIC Clearinghouse on the
Teaching of English
National Council of Teachers
of English
Champaign, Ill. 61820

ERIC Clearinghouse on the
Teaching of Foreign Languages
Modern Language Association of
America
62 Fifth Av.
New York, N. Y. 10011

ERIC Clearinghouse on Vocational
and Technical Education
Ohio State U.
Columbus, O. 43210

ESL Demonstration Project Center
2950 National Av.
San Diego, Calif. 92113
Herbert Ybarra, Dir.

Far West Regional Ed. Lab.
See Regional Laboratories

Foreign Language Education Center
Sutton Hall 417
The U. of Tex. at Austin
Austin, Tex. 78712
Dr. Joseph Michel, Dir.

Foreign Language Innovative
Curricula Study (FLICS)
550 City Center Bldg.
220 E. Huron
Ann Arbor, Mich. 48108
James McClafferty, Dir.
(Developers of innovative materials in Spanish [as a standard language for migrants], French [humanities for secondary schools], Polish [for areas of high Polish-American concentration], and Dutch.)

Hachette Teacher's Showroom and
French Book Guild
595 Madison Av.
New York, N. Y. 10022

Haskell Institute
Lawrence, Kansas 66044
(Publishers of Indian-English materials for BIA.)

HRD/ROCAP
U. S. Embassy
Guatemala, Guatemala
Dr. Alfred J. Ravelli, Chief
(Funds Regional Textbook Center of AID/ROCAP)

Institute for Research in Language
Teaching
Central Corporus 108
15 Agebacho, Shinjuku-ku
Tokyo, Japan

Institute of Language Teaching
Waseda U.
No. 647, 1-Chome
Totsuka-Machi, Shinjuku-ku
Tokyo, Japan

Instituto Lingüístico de Verano
(Summer Inst. of Linguistics)
Box 1960
Santa Ana, Calif. 92702
Dr. Benjamin Elson, Dir.

Ecuador: Casilla 1007
Quito, Ecuador

Guatemala: Apartado 74
Guatemala, S. A.

México: Apartado 22067
México 22, D. F.

Peru: c/o Mrs. Donald Burns
Casilla 2492
Lima, Peru
(Jungle Bil. Schls.)

Inter-Agency Committee on Mexican
AmericanAffairs
1800 G St., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20506
José A. Chacón, Exec. Dir.
(*Mexican American News*)

Inter-American Ed. Center
Dwain M. Estes, Dir.
Inter-American Institute
Ivan Barrientos, Dir.
2525 Tower Life Bldg.
San Antonio, Tex. 78205

Inter-American Institute
The U. of Tex. at El Paso
El Paso, Tex. 79999
Dr. Chester C. Christian,
Dir.

Inter-American Prog. for Linguistics
and Lang. Teaching/Programa
Internacional de Lingüística
y de Enseñanza de Idiomas (PILEI)
El Colegio de México
Guanajuato 125
México 7, D. F.
Juan M. Lope Blanch, Dir.

International Center for Research
on Bilingualism
Cité Universitaire, 4530
Bibliothèque Générale
Ste-Foy 10, Québec
Canada
Dr. Wm. F. Mackey, Exec. Dir.

Jewish Education Committee
426 West 58th St.
New York, N. Y. 10019

Kosciuszko Foundation
15 East 65th St.
New York, N. Y. 10021
Dr. Eugene Kusielewicz
Vice Pres.

Language Study Center
Philippine Normal College
Manila, Philippines

L'Union Saint-Jean Baptiste
d'Amérique
1 Social Street
Woonsocket, R. I.
(Franco-American fraternal society)

Maestros Para Mañana
Teachers for Tomorrow
(A new agency which will work with NEA and AMAE to locate and support through counseling, scholarships, community involvement, etc. Spanish surname bilingual teachers.)
Contact: Monroe Sweetland
1705 Murchison Dr.
Burlingame, Calif. 94010
or
Reynaldo Martínez
1125 West Sixth St.
Los Angeles, Calif. 90017

Mexican-American Educators Coordinating Council
State Dept. of Ed.
721 Capitol Mall
Sacramento, Calif. 95814
Mr. Eugene Gonzales, Chrmn.

Modern Language Center
The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
102 Bloor St. West
Toronto 5, Ontario
Canada
H. H. Stern Dir.

Multi-Media Approach to Library Services for the Spanish Surnamed
Colorado State College
Greeley, Colo.
Dr. D. Harold Bowman, Dir.

National Association of Language Laboratory Directors
Brown U., Box E
Providence, R. I. 02912

National Carl Schurz Association (NCSA)
339 Walnut St.
Philadelphia, Pa.
Hans-Werner Deeken, Ex. Dir
(Seeks to promote cultural relations between the United States and the German-speaking peoples. Operates service center for teachers of German in the U.S. in conjunction with American Assn. of Teachers of German (AATG); loans exhibits of German art (reproductions) for in-school use. Publications: (1) The American-German Review, bimonthly; (2) NCSA/AATG Service Center Catalogue, annual.)

National Congress of American Indians
1452 Pennsylvania
Denver, Colo.
Vine Deloria, Jr., Exec. Dir.

Nordmanns Förbundet
Minneapolis Chapter
529 E. Minnehaha Parkway
Minneapolis, Minn. 55419
(Clearinghouse for Norwegian textbooks.)

Northern Arizona Supplementary Education Center (NASEC)
Northern Ariz. U.
Box 5618
Flagstaff, Ariz. 86001
Larry A. Stout, Dir.

Northwest Regional Ed. Lab.
See Regional Laboratories

Norwegian-American Historical Association
Northfield, Minn.
Secretary, Prof. Lloyd Hustvedt
Saint Olaf College
Northfield, Minn.
Editor, Prof. Kenneth Bjork

Peace Corps
806 Connecticut Av., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20515

Polish-American Congress
1520 West Division
Chicago, Ill. 60622
Aloysius A. Mazewski, Pres.

Polish-American Journal
409-415 Cedar Av.
Scranton, Pa. 18505

Polish Institute of Arts and Sciences
59 East 66th St.
New York, N. Y. 10021

Polish Teachers Assn. in America
2653 W. Logan Blvd.
Chicago, Ill. 60647
Frank Kokot, Pres.

Project Libro
The Galton Institute
319 S. Robertson Blvd.
Beverly Hills, Calif. 90211
(A bilingual materials center)

Proyecto Leer
La Casita
Pan American Union
Washington, D. C. 20006
Miss Martha Tomé, Dir.

Puerto Rican Forum, Inc.
156 Fifth Av.
New York, N. Y. 10010
(Mobile Language Lab.)

Regional Laboratories
(There are fifteen Regional Labs funded by USOE including the following.)

Center for Urban Education
105 Madison Av.
New York, N. Y. 10016
Dr. Robert A. Dentler, Dir.

Far West Regional Educational Laboratory
1 Garden Circle, Hotel Claremont
Berkeley, Calif. 94705
Dr. John K. Hemphill, Dir.

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
400 Lindsay Blvd.
710 S. W. 2nd Av.
Portland, Ore. 97204
Dr. Lawrence Fish, Exec. Dir.

Southeastern Ed. Corp.
Box 20867
Airport Branch
Atlanta, Ga. 30304
Dr. Robert Hopper, Dir.

Southwest Ed. Dev. Lab.
Commodore Perry Hotel
Suite 550
Austin, Tex. 78701
Dr. Edwin Hindsman, Exec. Dir.

Southwest Regional Lab for Ed. Res. and Dev.
11300 La Cienega Blvd.
Inglewood, Calif. 90304
Dr. Richard Schutz, Dir.

Southwestern Coop. Ed. Lab.
117 Richmond Dr., N.E.
Albuquerque, N. M. 87106
Dr. Paul V. Petty, Dir.

Society for French Amer. Cultural Services & Educational Aids (FACSEA)
972 Fifth Ave.
New York 21, N. Y.
Mme. Huguette Chesnais, Ex. Dir.
(Prepares and lends for a fee materials to schools, universities, libraries, museums and educational organizations for use in French language and civilization, art, social studies and science courses and wherever France is the subject of study. Materials available for loan include films, slides, soundtapes, records, filmstrips, and exhibits.)

Society for the Advancement of
Scandinavian Studies
Northwestern U.
Evanston, Ill.
Prof. Thomas Buckman, Sec.

Sons of Norway Intl. Hdqtrs.
1455 West Lake St.
Minneapolis, Minn. 55408
(Language camps)

Southeastern Educational Corp.
See Regional Laboratories

Southern Regional Council, Inc.
5 Forsyth St., N.W.
Atlanta, Ga. 30303
(A Council to attain the ideals and practices of equal opportunity for all peoples in the South.)

Southwest Council for Biling. Ed.
Box 497
The U. of Tex. at El Paso
El Paso, Tex. 79999

Southwest Ed. Dev. Lab.
See Regional Laboratories

Southwest Regional Lab. for Ed.
Research and Development
See Regional Laboratories

Southwestern Coop. Ed. Lab.
See Regional Laboratories

Summer Institute of Linguistics
Wycliffe Bible Translators, Inc.
Box 1960
Santa, Ana, Calif.
Dr. Benjamin Elson, Dir.

Arizona: Miss Faith Hill
Box 612
Tuba City, Ariz.
(Navajo-English)

Teachers of English to Speakers of
Other Languages (TESOL)
School of Languages and Linguistics
Georgetown U.
Washington, D. C. 20007
Dr. James Alatis, Exec. Sec.

United Japanese Society of Hawaii

Honolulu, Hawaii

United States AID Mission to
Boliva
Casilla 673
La Paz, Bolivia

United States Catholic Conference
Div. for the Spanish Speaking
National Office
Dept. of Social Development
Intl. Bldg., Suites 401-404
318 W. Houston St.
San Antonio, Tex. 78205
Antonio Tinajero-G.,
Exec. Dir.

U. S. Dept. of Health, Education,
and Welfare

U. S. Office of Education
400 Maryland Av., S.W.
Washington, D. C. 20202

Commission to Study
Indian Education
Dr. R. Havighurst

Mexican-American Affairs
Unit
Armando Rodriguez, Chief

Regional Offices (9)

U. S. Dept. of Interior

Bureau of Indian Affairs
1951 Constitution Av., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20242

Office of Territories
C St. between 18th & 19th
Sts., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20242

U. S. Dept. of State

U. S. Mexico Commission
for Border Development
and Freidnship
1800 G St., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20525

Villa Jones
Centro Cultural Internacional,
A.C.
Chilpancingo 23
México 11, D. F.
Roberto Cuba Jones, Dir.

SOURCES OF MATERIALS

I. *General*

Association for Childhood
Education International
3615 Wisconsin Av., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20016
(Bulletins, leaflets, and books related to the education and well-being of children)

Broadcasting Foundation of
America
52 Vanderbilt Av.
New York, N. Y.
(Tapes in various languages)

California Test Bureau (Div.
of McGraw-Hill)
Del Monte Research Park
Monterey, Calif. 93940
(Tests for language teaching at elementary level)

Center for Curriculum Dev. in
Audio-Visual Language
Teaching
Irvin Bldg.
Philadelphia, Pa.
(Developers of *Method, Services, Materials, 1969-1970*, published by Chilton Books. Audio-visual foreign-language materials)

Child Development Evaluation
and Research Center
The U. of Tex. at Austin
Austin, Tex. 78712
John Pierce-Jones, Dir.

Children's Music Center, Inc.
5373 West Pico Blvd.
Los Angeles, Calif. 90019
(Records of children's music in Spanish and French)

Educational Resources Information Center
See ERIC, under organizations

Educational Testing Service
Princeton, N. J. 08540

Foreign Language Innovative
Curricula Study (FLICS)
550 City Center Bldg.
220 E. Huron
Ann Arbor, Mich. 48108
(Teaching materials in Spanish, French, Dutch, and Polish)

Gessler Publishing Co., Inc.
131 East 23rd St.
New York, N. Y. 10010
(Distributor of French, Spanish, and German reading materials and learning games)

Institute for Personality and
Ability Testing
1602 Coronado Dr.
Champaign, Ill. 61820
(IPAT Culture Fair Intelligence Test and others for testing school children)

International Film Bureau, Inc.
332 S. Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Ill. 60604
(Distributors of French, German, Spanish and Russian films – for rental or purchase – with student handbooks containing complete narration of the film, vocabulary and exercises)

Language Arts, Inc.
1205-C W. 34th St.
Austin, Tex.
Mr. Gib Devine, Dir.
(*Gloria and David* language series in English, French, and Spanish. Film strips and records plus cartridges

containing both pictures
and sound for use by elementary school children. Also
materials for testing free
language fluency)

Language Research Associates
300 North State St.
Chicago, Ill. 60610
(Testing and other materials plus "Cumulative
Bibliography" available)

Lorraine Music Co.
P. O. Box 4131
Long Island City, N. Y. 11104
(Distributors of sheet
music and records in
foreign languages)

Modern Language Association
62 Fifth Av.
New York, N. Y. 10011
(*MLA Selective List of Materials*, 1962, 162 pp.
This list and each of the
following supplements contains a list of publishers.)

1964 Supplement for French and Italian to the Modern Language Association Selected List of Materials
70 pp.

1964 Supplement for German, Norwegian, Polish, Russian, and Swedish to the Modern Language Association Selected List of Materials,
69pp.

1964 Supplement for Spanish and Portuguese to the Modern Language Association Selected List of Materials.
55 pp.)

National Education Association
Publications Division
1201 Sixteenth St., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20036

Pan American Union
Washington, D. C. 20006
(Produces and disseminates
in English, Portuguese, and
Spanish, materials concerning
Latin America, some of which
are useful in bilingual progs.)

Portal Press, Inc., Publishers
(A subsidiary of John Wiley & Sons)
605 Third Av.
New York, N. Y. 10016
(Producers of Springboards
Programs, visual teaching aids,
in social studies, Amer. history,
world history, Negro in
American history; Insight:
China, India, Africa, Latin
America; Survival: A Geographic
Approach, Biography, Young
Writers, English-Spanish
Look-Alikes,
Language Arts, Fiction on
the Job, Fiction, Viewpoints
in Fiction, Science,
Life Science, Reading Lab.)

Practical Drawing Co.
2205 Cockrell
Dallas, Texas 75222
(Mexican Folk Dance
Records, Sing and Speak
Spanish Records, mathematics games, and flat
pictures)

Project Head Start
The Office of Economic
Opportunity
1111 18th St., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 10036
Dr. John McDavid, Dir.,
Research & Evaluation

Psychological Corporation
304 E. 45th St.
New York, N. Y. 10017
(Test materials)

Psychological Test Specialists
Box 1441
Missoula, Mont.
(Test materials)

Rosenzweig, Dr. Saul
8029 Washington St.
St. Louis, Mo. 63114
("Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study" test for students, both children and adults)

Schools for the Future
P. O. Box 349, Cooper Station
New York, N. Y. 10003
(Distributor of word charts, books, pictures, games, film strips and other language learning materials)

Science Research Associates, Inc.
259 East Erie St.
Chicago, Ill. 60611

Southwest Ed. Dev. Lab.
Suite 550, Commodore Perry Hotel
Austin, Tex. 78701
(Developing and pilot testing elementary materials in Spanish and French)

Summer Institute of Linguistics
P. O. Box 1960
Santa Ana, Calif.
(*Bibliography of the Summer Institute of Linguistics 1935-1968* compiled by Alan C. Wares, 1968. Textbooks in Spanish for bilingual schools in Peru, p. 93; Spanish lessons for Mexican Indians, p. 65; textbooks in U. S. Indian Languages – Apache, Comanche, Eskimo, Hopi, Koyukon, Navajo, Tanana, Tewa, Tlingit – pp. 104-105)

Teaching Research Division
Oregon State System of Higher Education
Monmouth, Oregon
Dr. Jack Crawford,
Mrs. Cathy Kielsmeier
(*Games as a Methodological Approach to Teaching Oral Language to Disadvantaged Bilingual Children*. 4 pp.)

3M Company
Visual Products Division
Box 334, 3M Center
St. Paul, Minn. 55101
(Slides in Spanish and French for K through 12)

Trans-World Films, Inc.
332 South Michigan Av.
Chicago, Ill. 60604
(Distributor for foreign language film rentals)

University of Chicago Press
11030 S. Langley Av.
Chicago, Ill. 60628
(*Folktales of the World* - Norway, Germany, Hungary, France, England, China, Chile, Israel, Japan, and Ireland – edited by Richard M. Dorson. Contains notes, glossary, index, and bibliography)

U. S. Committee for UNICEF
P. O. Box 1618
Church St. Station
New York, N. Y.
(*Hi Neighbor Series*: books and records of children's songs and dances with instructions for dancing. Contains maps, charts, drawings, and photographs)

Visual Instruction Bureau
Division of Extension
18th and Sabine Sts.
The U. of Tex. at Austin
Austin, Tex. 78712
(Distributor of *Learning Resources: Educational Motion Pictures*, catalogue of foreign-language films available for rental to be used as teaching aids)

Western Psychological Services
(A Division of Manson Western
Corp.)
12031 Wilshire Blvd.
Los Angeles, Calif. 90025
(Testing materials)

II. *Spanish*

AID/ROCAP Textbook Program
American Embassy
San Salvador, El Salvador
Dr. Donald A. Lemke, Cons.
(Producing elem. school
texts in Spanish in five
basic subjects – reading,
language, math, science,
and social studies – for
use in six Central Amer.
countries.

American School Foundation, A. C.
Calle Sur 136
No. 135
México 18, D. F.
Mrs. Rosalind Beimler,
Curr. Director
(*Cuentos de la Revolución
Mexicana*, Boletín No. 81;
Pedor y María, 2nd ed.;
Vamos de Compras, Boletín
No. 35; *Frutas Tropicales*,
Boletín No. 43; *Te Invito a
Leer*, Boletín No. 38; *¿Qué
Comeremos Hoy?* Boletín
No. 65; *Desde los Tianguis
Hasta los Mercados Modernos*, Boletín No. 54)

Books for the People Fund, Inc.
Pan American Union
Washington, D. C. 20006
(Co-sponsors Proyecto Leer)

Bro-Dart Foundation
1609 Memorial Av.
Williamsport, Pa. 17101
(Co-sponsor with books
for the People Fund, Inc.
of Proyecto Leer)

Centro Regional de Libros de
Textos

Departamento de Asuntos
Culturales y Educativos
ODECA
San Salvador, El Salvador
Dr. Albino Román y Vega,
Secretario General
(Spanish elem. texts)

Editorial La Muralla, S.A.
Carretas, 14, 5. 1-2
Madrid 12, Spain
(Collections of slides:
"Historia del Arte Español")

EMC Corporation
Educational Materials Division
180 East Sixth St.
St. Paul, Minn. 55101
(Tape recordings and records
in Spanish for children)

Garfield Elementary School
Del Rio ISD
Del Rio, Tex.
(Bibliography of Spanish
materials available to
teachers engaged in bilingual education. Prepared
by Mrs. R. J. Waddell,
Librarian. March 1969,
18 pp. Contains lists of
professional books,
periodicals, textbooks –
including teacher's
manuals, children's tests
and workbooks –,
library books for children
and adults in Spanish-English and Spanish language, English language
with Mexican or Spanish
cultural background,
audio-visual materials,
dimensional materials,
and flat pictures)

Hammond, Dr.
211 S. Main
McAllen, Tex. 78501
(Supplier and distributor for Central and
South American pericals and books from
South America and Spain)

Heffernan Supply Co., Inc.
926 Fredericksburg Rd.
Box 5309
San Antonio, Tex 78201
and
1327 Laredo St.
Box 2071
Corpus Christi, Tex. 78403
(Distributor of workbooks printed in Mexico and Spanish for bilingual, migrant, and elementary Spanish programs)

Hispanic-American Publications, Inc.
252 East 51st St.
New York, N. Y. 10022
(Producing books for Spanish-English education programs, beginning with first through 4th grade materials for use by Puerto Rican children in New York City)

Nuffield Foundation
Nuffield Foreign Languages Teaching Materials Project
5 Lyddon Terrace
The University
Leeds 2, England
(*Bibliography of Spanish Teaching Materials* compiled by Hedley Sharples. Reports and Occasional Papers, No. 34, 1968. Limited to materials available in Britain)

Proyecto Leer
La Casita
Pan American Union
Washington, D. C. 20006
Martha V. Tomé, Dir.

Santillana, S.A. de Ediciones
Elfo, 32
Madrid 17, Spain
(Distributors of books from Spain and South America - elementary through adult)

Southeastern Educational Corp.
Box 10867
Airport Branch
Atlanta, Ga. 30304
(*Razón de Ser of the Bilingual School*, A Handbook for Teachers. 1968)

Studyscopes Productions
Box 25943
Los Angeles, Calif. 90025
(Distributor of childrens' Spanish books at elementary and Jr. High level – Little Golden Books, Walt Disney, etc. Very reasonable)

III. *Indian and Eskimo*

Alaska Rural School Project
U. of Alaska
College, Alaska 99701
(*A Teacher's Guide for Teaching English to the Native Children of Alaska [Eskimo and Athabaskan]* edited by Donald H. Webster and Elliott Canonge and compiled by members of the Summer Inst. of Linguistics, North Amer. Branch, 1968, 40 pp. Contains a general comparison of Eskimo and Athabaskan phonology, grammar, and culture with those of English-speakers)

Navajo Curriculum Center
Rough Rock Demonstration School
Rough Rock, Ariz.
(*Oral English at Rough Rock* by Virginia Hoffman; *Navajo Education at Rough Rock; Black Mountain Boy; Coyote Stories* of the Navajo People; *Grandfather Stories of the Navajos.*

Navajo Social Studies Project
College of Education
The U. of N. M.
Albuquerque, N. M. 87106

Northern Arizona Supplementary
Education Center
Faculty Box 5618
Northern Arizona U.
Flagstaff, Ariz. 86001
Larry A. Stout, Dir.
(Teaching materials in English and Indian languages - presently involved in Hopi-English)

Senate Committee on Labor
and Public Welfare
Washington, D. C.
("Quality Education for American Indians." Prepared in 1967 by the Subcommittee on Education)

South Central Regional Ed. Lab.
Corp.
408 National Old Line Bldg.
Little Rock, Ark. 72201
(*Bibliography of the Cherokees* by Anne K. Hoyt, 1969)

IV. *French*

Centre Educatif et Culturel, Inc.
190 ouest, rue Sauvé
Montréal 12, P. Q., Canada
(Publishers of *Apprenons à Lire*, French elementary course materials)

Les Editions des Frères du Sacré-Coeur
2244, rue Fullum
Montréal 24, P. Q., Canada
(French elementary course materials)

Librairie Beauchemin Limitée
450, avenue Beaumont
Montréal 15, P. Q., Canada
(Publishers of *L'Apprentissage du Français par le Sablier*, a French reading program for elementary school children using the "sablier" [hour-glass] approach)

V. *English as a Second Language*

Center for Applied Linguistics
1717 Massachusetts Av., N.W.
Washington, D. C. 10036
(*English as a Second Language in Elementary Schools: Background and Text Materials*, rev. ed., October 1967. Includes annotated sections on methodology and on preschool or primary school materials. *Selected List of Materials for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, edited by S. Ohannessian and Dorothy A. Pedtke)

ESL Demonstration Project Center
San Diego City Schools
2950 National Av.
San Diego, Calif. 92113

Region I Education Service
Center
Edinburg, Tex. 78539
Al Ramírez, Curriculum Dir.
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